A Dynamic Usage-based Approach to Second Language Teaching

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Chapter 1
Introduction to the Study

In this chapter, I describe two main reasons why EFL learners in Vietnam have a limited level of English proficiency. I then argue that it is crucial for low-proficiency EFL learners to be exposed to more authentic input before they are required to produce language. In this chapter the research questions, the significance of the study, and an outline of the dissertation are also given.

1.1 Rationale of the study

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) arrived in Vietnam in the early 1990s (H. Nguyen, 1999; Pham, 2005). It is a foreign/second language teaching approach that emphasizes communicative competence as the goal of language teaching, rather than mastery of abstract, formal aspects of the target language. Contrary to earlier language teaching approaches such as the Grammar-Translation and the Audio-lingual methods that aim at getting things right at the beginning, CLT aims to develop fluency before accuracy. In a CLT classroom, learners are encouraged to express themselves and negotiate meaning by interacting with their peers (mostly) and teacher via collaborative activities like role plays, simulations, and information gap exercise. Mistakes are tolerated on the belief that they are sometimes functional and they will disappear as students begin to correct themselves over time. Other characteristics of CLT are the use of authentic materials and a new role for teachers as facilitators and negotiators of meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In recent years, with English increasingly seen as a key tool of the government's policy of international engagement and participation in world markets, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has actively advocated the CLT approach to teaching English as a foreign language (MOET, 2003, 2006, 2008, and 2010). The MOET expects that the CLT approach, in addition to other factors such as teachers' increased proficiency, reformed teaching materials, and the use of audio-visual aids in language instruction, will help foster communicative competence in English for Vietnamese learners. It is expected that by the year 2020, EFL (English as a foreign language) Vietnamese learners will be able to communicate orally and in writing and to comprehend both oral and written language so that they can participate confidently in multi-cultural working environments for their own career development and for serving the cause of industrialization and modernization of the country (the objectives of the National 2008-2020 Project of the Teaching and Learning of English in the National Educational System) (Vietnamese Government, 2008).

By and large, Vietnamese teachers of English have expressed positive attitudes towards this modern-day teaching approach and have shown a keen interest in applying its principles in their classrooms (Canh, 2000; Lewis & McCook, 2002; A. Nguyen, 2002; Pham, 2004, 2007). Learners also favor CLT above other, more traditional teaching methods (Mai & Iwashita, 2012). However, despite the rather successful implementation of CLT, EFL university learners in Vietnam do not communicate well in English. At the MOET's first National Conference on Teaching Non-major English at the Tertiary Level organized in Hanoi in October 2008, the Department of Higher Education Affairs (Vụ Đại Học) reported that 51.7% of new university graduates are not qualified for the job market due to their inadequate English proficiency (Thanh Ha, 2008).

Two important reasons are given as to why Vietnamese learners of English cannot communicate in English, despite their many years of formal instruction. Pham (2000) looks at the factors that hinder the success of English education programs and speculates that " [...] the poor input outside the class may account for the fact that many students, despite their good linguistic skills, are at a loss when they have to communicate with speakers of English from other countries […] " (Pham, 2000: 187). Canh (2000) also argues that a lack of exposure to the target language is a big barrier to language learning. These opinions are supported by a survey of national secondary school English textbooks by B. Nguyen and Crabbe (2000). The survey shows that less than 10% of the curriculum is dedicated to aural input, with the exception of the Grade 9 English textbook, which offers 30% listening input. In addition, G. Ellis' interview study conducted in Vietnam identified a lack of exposure to authentic language, large class sizes, and grammar-based examinations as constraints on using CLT (G. Ellis, 1994). Given these observations it can be concluded that a lack of authentic input, both inside and outside the classroom, can account for the poor performance in English of many Vietnamese EFL learners.

Another factor that may have had a negative effect on English learning in Vietnam is the over-emphasis on language production. In light of a task-based and communicative language teaching paradigm, English teaching in Vietnam seems to focus more on speaking than on listening. This may reflect Nunan's point that the "Cinderella" listening skill has been "over-looked by its elder sister- speaking" (Nunan, 2002: 238). Although learners are not yet ready to speak English as they have not been substantially exposed to enough aural target language, they tend to be over-encouraged to produce language once they are at college. For instance, the guidelines for teaching General English to first-year students at a university mention all skills but pay little attention to listening (see Appendix A).

The guidelines address all four language skills as, in the CLT spirit, learners can learn in an integrated way and acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. However, they seem to have placed an overriding focus on producing language (speaking and writing), to the detriment of language exposure through listening and reading. As shown in the guidelines, when they are in class learners are expected to focus more on speaking by working in pairs or small groups and are instructed how to write step by step. This often results in a cooperation between conversants using translation from L1 to L2 to create a conversation (in the case of pair/group work activities) and learners merely reproducing a written sample text and presenting it as their own work (in the case of writing activities) (personal experience).

They are encouraged to listen to the audio CDs accompanying the textbook and read the reading passages in the textbook before class and are then expected to answer questions on the assigned listening/reading in class. If their answers are correct, there is no more attention placed on the reading/listening text. If the answers are incorrect, the teacher provides the correct answer. This practice of listening as well as reading instruction reflects the minimal attention given to the importance of providing substantial input in EFL classrooms.

Another example of an over-emphasis on language production can be seen in Pham's case study of teachers' beliefs about CLT. Pham (2007) interviewed three English university teachers in Vietnam, two of whom held a Master's degree and one a Postgraduate Diploma in TESOL. Asked how they had applied CLT, the informants rarely mentioned listening and/or the use of authentic materials in their teaching. Instead, they mentioned forming pair/group work (interaction) and encouraging learners to speak (output) as the most frequent activities in their class. However, they were not happy with their (perceived) communicative language teaching approach. They disappointedly reported that when put in pair/group work their students were prone to use their mother tongue to communicate. They stated that their students asked each other in Vietnamese what they were supposed to do for the task and then spent time translating their thoughts in Vietnamese into English. The interviewed teachers were unhappy with these interactive activities and concluded that it was difficult to apply CLT in Vietnam.

However, if we look at the issue closely, the CLT tenets of *Interaction* and *Output* themselves may not be so problematic. The main problem seems to be that the learners mentioned in the survey were expected to produce language before they were linguistically ready. They were most probably not exposed to authentic spoken language sufficiently enough before they were asked to produce it. In other words, they were not sufficiently exposed to conversational discourse and this naturally resulted in their reliance on their L1, the best linguistic resource available to them at the time of the cooperative task. The L2 ways of saying things were probably not entrenched in the learners' bilingual mind for them to retrieve for use with ease, due to insufficient repetition and practice (Verspoor & Schmitt, 2013: 354). They simply had too few chances to listen to proficient speakers of English in class (and outside of the class) to familiarize themselves with the target language, notice it, process it, and uptake it for later use.

While many more reasons could account for the poor proficiency in English of Vietnamese learners of English (cf. Canh, 2000; Pham, 2000; Mai & Iwashita, 2012), it is evident that a systematic lack of authentic language input and perhaps an over-encouragement of output are likely factors that impede second language acquisition.

Vietnamese learners of English need to be provided with (more) language input to increase their English proficiency. Given that first and second year non-English major students at the tertiary level in Vietnam are mainly low-proficiency EFL learners, it is reasonable to argue that their experience with foreign language learning should first of all be more focused on comprehension than production (cf. Postovsky, 1974, 1981; Nation, 1985, 1990). In other words, to use Nation's concept, it is recommended that these learners "delay speaking" (Nation, 1990: 17). This means that they need to be provided with substantial opportunities to listen to

the target language before they are expected to produce any intelligible messages in the target language.

In this thesis we will address this problem by designing a CLT course for the tertiary level based on a view of language and language learning that allows for a great deal of authentic, meaningful input.

1.2 Research questions

This doctoral research took a Dynamic Usage-based (DUB) approach (which can be seen as an amalgamation of Dynamic Systems Theory and Usage-based linguistics) in order to investigate whether or not EFL learners benefited when they were exposed to a great deal of authentic input. Specifically, the research aimed to investigate if low-proficiency EFL learners benefited from a General English course in which they frequently hear a great deal of everyday spoken English, with the teacher helping with understanding the meaning. Because every-day spoken English is filled with an abundance of chunks, combinations of words that native speakers frequently use to communicate, the study also aimed to examine if the learners would be able to pick up these language units which should help them to sound natural using idiomatic language. In addition, because a language teaching program that provides a friendly and non-threatening learning environment by not forcing learners to produce language too early potentially reduces stress and anxiety of the learners (Krashen, 1982), the current study also aimed to see if the learners would have a greater willingness to communicate in English and increase their level of confidence with English after taking such a program.

In summary, this dissertation aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Do low-proficiency EFL learners develop language proficiency better when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
2. Do low-proficiency EFL learners pick up more formulaic chunks when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
3. Do low-proficiency EFL learners become more willing to communicate in English when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
4. Do low-proficiency EFL learners become more confident with using English when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?

The assumption is that frequent exposure to authentic language in real communicative situations will enhance proficiency. With more exposure to authentic language, learners are also expected to use more authentic language, and increase their willingness to communicate in an L2 and self-confidence with the L2- the two affective factors perceived to facilitate second language learning.

1.3 Significance of the research

It is imperative that English language teaching in Vietnam becomes more effective so that university graduates can participate confidently in multi-cultural working environments, a goal that has not yet been accomplished by current CLT approaches. It is hypothesized that a DUB General English course will help to improve the language skills of the Vietnamese undergraduate university students. Once students are exposed to authentic aural input in the target language, in our case via popular movies, they will be more confident with the language they are learning and more motivated to expose themselves to the language outside of class. The more they acquaint themselves with the target language in a meaningful and engaging manner, the more they deduce how the language is used naturally and appropriately. It is hypothesized that with frequent exposure to the L2, the learner will be able to use it more fluently and accurately.

1.4 Overview of the dissertation

The current chapter has presented the rationale of the current study. It describes shortcomings of Communicative Language Teaching in Vietnam, and argues for the need of authentic input and delayed output in second language teaching at the tertiary level in Vietnam. Chapter 2 first reviews the literature on the relevance of Dynamic Systems Theory in language development and on dynamic usage-based linguistics on language teaching. The chapter then reviews previous studies that used tenets of a dynamic usage-based approach to teaching a second language. Chapter 3 describes the experimental set-up and a detailed explanation of the four analyses to be conducted on the data is also given. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study in light of these analyses. Chapter 5 summarizes the study, discusses the results, presents pedagogical implications, and makes suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2
A Dynamic Usage-based Approach to Second Language Teaching

A dynamic usage-based (DUB) approach to second language teaching is based on perspectives of Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) and usage-based linguistics. After giving an overview of Dynamic Systems Theory (DST), this chapter addresses principal aspects of second language learning in light of DST and their pedagogical implications. It continues with an overview of usage-based linguistics and proposes a DUB approach to teaching a second language in which language learning should be meaning-based at all levels, and should emphasize frequency of exposure to authentic input and usage-events. The chapter ends with some previous empirical studies that are in line with a DUB approach.

2.1 DST and second language development

In recent years, language has come to be seen as a dynamic system and language development as a dynamic process (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2007; de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005, 2007; de Bot, Lowie, Thorne, & Verspoor, 2013). In de Bot et al. (2005), Dynamic System Theory (DST) is argued to be in line with sociocultural theory, in that development or learning should be seen as emergent: individuals change and transform through interaction with their social and material environments. Like the social environment and individuals, language is a dynamic system. Its subsystems (the sound sytem, the morpheme system, the lexical system, the syntactic, the semantic and the pragmatic system) continually interact with each other over time and language and its subsystems also interact with cognitive, historical, pedagogical, economic, social, and a number of other systems. Therefore, learning in general and learning a language specifically are dynamic processes. We will highlight several aspects of DST that are especially relevant to language development and point to their pedagogical implications.

The following explanation is based on Verspoor, Schmid, and Xu (2012) which in turn is very much inspired by Van Geert (1994). First of all, language development depends critically on initial conditions. Van Geert (1994) points out that the present level in development depends critically on the previous level. Initial conditions are the state at which the learner is at the moment the teaching begins. The state of the learner at this point will be the combined result of all previous states and experiences in L1 learning, L2 learning, aptitude, context and so on. For example, in the present study, the learners' L1 (Vietnamese) and L2 (English) are grammatically and phonologically very different (e.g., in Vietnamese, adjectives come after nouns, finite verbs do not bear tense markings, and while the language has six distinct tones, there is no such thing as word stress because it is a mono-syllabic language) and learners have had very little exposure to the L2. After seven years of learning English as a foreign language at high school through mainly a grammar-translation method, taught by teachers who are not very proficient themselves, the learners can be considered "false

beginners" (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985: 103). That is, they are learners who in many cases "know quite a lot of English [compared to absolute beginners], and can draw on this knowledge in developing important skills that were neglected at high school, such as listening and speaking" (Peaty, 1987: 4). They have a background in English grammar and vocabulary. However, due to not having been exposed to authentic L2 English, they are generally unable to use English naturally for communication. In addition to the inability to converse in English, false-beginners may have developed certain bad habits in using the L2 due to L1 transfer. Taking these initial conditions in mind, the teacher needs to make sure the learners' habits are not further entrenched and first expose the learners to enough authentic input that enables them to establish as many new L2 form-meaning pairs of expressions as possible and activate their fragmented knowledge of the language.

The form-meaning pairs bring us to the second dynamic aspect of language learning: just like L1 learners, L2 learners do not learn an L2 in separate sub-systems; they learn it in a connected manner. Language is a complex system consisting of many different sub-systems and, seen from a usage-based perspective, it is not a set of rules but a vast array of conventional units that have sounds, meanings, and forms that are interconnected. Sounds are connected to words with all their associations and collocations, which in turn are connected to sentence patterns that are associated with uses and contexts. A change in one particular sub-system might cause a change in another one, which in turn causes another change, resulting in continuous change. All sub-systems develop over time, but not at the same rate. Some sub-systems such as lexicon and syntax may not develop at the same time and will compete for attention and other cognitive resources. Similar to the differential effect of input at different moments in time, the same type, whether aural or written, and amount of input is likely to have significantly different effects for different learners, not only because those learners have different initial conditions when taking on the task of learning a language, but also because the way in which the different resources will interact over time will be variable.

In the past, we tended to think about input in language development in terms of a one-way stream of information from the outside to the inside of a system that is in itself stable and not influenced by the fact that it is in interaction with another cognitive and social system. However, from a DST perspective, there is a continuous interaction between different sub-systems. The differential effects of input at different times suggest that it may be better to replace the concept of input with that of processing and see processing as acquiring or learning. But following VanPatten (2002), it is likely that the input a student receives, while interacting with the environment, may be processed differently at different times, going from a focus on the meaning to the form of a construction. After the learner has processed some input for meaning and has been able to make form-meaning connections for the content words, he or she will have more resources available to process the same input (or very similar input) for less meaningful forms, which clearly indicates the dynamically changing nature of input processing. Even though the teacher may understand that different sub-systems may compete for attention, he/she will not know what each individual learner is focusing on at any particular time. Therefore, he or she should present the whole system with all its sub-systems of meaning and form together, but not expect that learners will be able to process them all equally at one time.

Keeping in mind that all sub-systems are interconnected and affect each other continuously, the teacher should present the sub-systems of sound, meaning and form as parts of one whole system, and not in isolation.

The third aspect of language development is that both internal and external resources are involved in the learning of an L2. Internal resources are those within the individual learner, such as the capacity to learn, prior conceptual knowledge, aptitude, learning styles, motivation, anxiety, willingness to communicate and self-confidence. All language learners have some experience in learning language, even if it is just their mother tongue, however it is generally believed that learners, particularly adult ones, with a higher language aptitude will enjoy more success with language learning (DeKeyser, 2000, cited in VanPatten & Benati, 2010: 42). Motivation, which in this context, refers to the willingness to learn a foreign language, is also known to be a good driver for success in language learning. For instance, if a learner plans to study abroad, he/she may work hard to pass a certain required English test such as TOEFL and IELTS. To this end, he/she may apply certain learning strategies (e.g., underlining new words in texts or actively practicing speaking with friends) and learning styles (e.g., focus on concreteness or focus on abstractness) (VanPatten & Benati, 2010: 44) that prove to be effective for himself/herself. Willingness to communicate (WTC) and self-confidence (SC) are factors that have been found in the literature to be significant indicators of language proficiency and therefore they have been chosen as variables in the current study. They are reviewed in more detail below.

Inspired by research on L1 WTC, L2 WTC refers to "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using a L2" (McIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998: 547). According to this definition, a second language learner who is willing to communicate in the L2 is one who voluntarily uses the target language to communicate (be it in any possible communicative modes – oral, writing, reading, texting, listening) in a particular situation with a specific person(s) when he/she has an opportunity to do so. Since the adoption of the concept, WTC in an L2 has been extensively studied (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002; Hashimoto, 2002; Kim, 2004; Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2005; MacIntyre, 2007; Peng, 2007, Peng & Woodrow, 2010) in various types of language learners (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Turkish), different learning environments (e.g., in class and outside class), and in relation with a variety of interrelated constructs (e.g., motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, learner beliefs). General findings from previous studies are that WTC is an individual difference (ID) factor that can facilitate L2 acquisition (MacIntyre, 2012: 690) and that while research has lent support to the intertwined relationships between L2 WTC and many other variables, self-confidence has overwhelmingly been found to be the most immediate antecedent of L2 WTC (Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Yashima, 2002). The more confident the students, the more willing they are to communicate and vice versa. Defined as the overall belief about one's ability to engage in efficient L2 communication (MacIntyre et al., 1998), self-confidence is a combination of perceived linguistic competence and a lack of anxiety (Clément, 1986). In the current study, WTC and SC were measured. However, they were not meant to see the relationship between WTC and SC, or between each of these two effective variables with learners' proficiency growth. Rather, in light of a DST perspective that sees change as

occurring over time, they were measured to see to what extent participants, under different instructional methods, increased their level of WTC and SC over time.

External resources are those outside the learning individual. They can be linguistic input the learner is exposed to in and outside class (teacher talk, textbooks, movies, music, TV, etc.), job-market orientations, teacher personalities, peer proficiency, types of exam, and school facilities. These resources not only have an impact on the ways a learner learns an L2, but also interact with each other over time and may change over time. Take, for example, a learner who is introduced to an e-pal who is a native speaker of the target language. This external resource (the e-pal) may lead to an increase in internal resources such as willingness to communicate in the target language on the part of the learner. His/ her level of confidence with the target language may also change for the better if he/she is exposed to linguistic input that is entertaining and easy to understand, such as interesting movie scenes spoken in the target language. Because resources are limited, they may compete; for example, at early stages, paying attention to what an L2 speaker says may compete with trying to produce language in the L2. Therefore, it can be assumed that actual teaching should focus first of all on paying attention to authentic input, which is made meaningful with the help of the teacher, and output should occur naturally when the learners ask questions or react to the content. There should be no forced output and practice at the early stages, which is very much in line with Postovsky (1974), who found positive effects when output was delayed.

The fourth aspect is iteration. In DST, iteration of simple procedures may lead to the emergence of complex patterns. Larsen-Freeman (2012) points out the connection between iteration in DST and pedagogical repetition. She argues that repetition should not be seen as exact replication, but as revisiting the same territory with a slightly different stance, every time resulting in another mutable state. As far as pedagogy is concerned this means that iterating a particular language event (e.g., showing the same movie scene several times in a row) does not mean that the learner sees the same thing every time. Because of limited resources, the learner may first only be able to get the gist of the general event, the second time the learner revisits the scene s/he may note some of the expressions used, the third time s/he may begin to really understand what some of the expressions mean in the context, and not until later will the learner be able to focus clearly on each of the form-meaning-use mappings. We should also keep in mind that at the production level, iteration or repetition plays a role in internalizing expressions. Lantolf (2006) points out that through imitation, especially as it occurs in private speech, the learner internalizes features of the L2. In sociocultural theory, imitation is seen as an intentional and potentially transformative process rather than as rote mimicking. Therefore, in the current approach we consider repeating movie lines as helpful in internalizing expressions.

The idea of iteration is related to self-organization, the fifth aspect of language learning. Iterating simple procedures may lead to complex patterns through self-organization. Caspi (2010) shows that first learners need to hear words passively and after that are able to write the words in sentences, indicating that lexicon needs to be learnt before syntax. The system (in the current study the student's L2) undergoes phase shifts (transitions) in which the cognitive system self-organizes and new patterns of understanding emerge. For example, Spoelman and Verspoor (2010) shows that phase shifts occur in a stable competitive

relationship between noun phrase complexity and sentence complexity as well as in an asymmetric supportive relationship between word complexity, noun phrase, and sentence complexity. Similarly, Verspoor, Lowie & van Dijk (2008) report on a competitive interaction between sentence length (sentence complexity) and type-token ratio (lexical creativity), respectively. In terms of DST which holds that changes are unpredictable, it is not known when phase shifts occur. Therefore, we assume that language teachers cannot really "teach" for the shifts. Rather, they can only create conditions and interactions in which the learner recurrently visits and engages with the language so that self-organization will develop spontaneously in his/her mind in its own way. A resulting teaching practice can be that although corrective feedback may still be useful teachers should not correct the learner's linguistic mistakes too often because they will disappear by themselves.

The sixth aspect of language development involves variability and variation. Variability involves the change over time within a learner. Variation refers to the difference between different learners. In terms of variability, although eventually language learners self-organize their language system, they experience variability along the way of their learning trajectory, resulting in a non-linear development (Verspoor, 2008). A language learner might use a linguistic feature very well on some days and use it incorrectly on other days. For example, van Dijk, Verspoor, and Lowie (2011) present an analysis of non-linear development of the English negation of six L1 Spanish learners of English, who experienced trials and errors (i.e., they used all the four negation forms: *No-V* constructions, *don't V* constructions, *aux-neg* constructions, and *analyzed don't* construction) just before they mastered the analyzed *don't* construction. Because learning a language involves growth and decline, variability is considered to be the result of the systems' flexibility and adaptability to the environment. From a dynamic systems perspective, variability has been viewed as both the source of development and the indicator of a developmental transition (Verspoor & Van Dijk, 2013). One of the pedagogical implications here is that learners develop through trial and error and therefore language teachers should not expect nor emphasize complete accuracy in early learning stages. In terms of variation, it is also noted that there is some kind of variation among learners. In other words, different learners may learn differently. Especially, there is more variation among beginning learners than advanced learners (Verspoor, Schmid, & Xu, 2012). Therefore, teachers should not expect the same behaviors from all students.

In summary, DST has six main characteristics and these characteristics have presented a challenge to our traditional view of language teaching. Traditionally, teaching a language is viewed as teaching a set of rules and the learner's language development is assumed to be linear, with a steady growth of language proficiency. In contrast, DST perspectives see language learning as a dynamic process. This suggests that teaching a language should create ample opportunities for the learners to see both form and meaning of the language that is learnt, and that the learning process is not linear. There is great variability within the learner in the way he/she develops the language (i.e., there can be both growth and decline), and there is great variation between different learners due to their individual differences. With DST perspectives of language development, teachers should keep in mind that because language self-organizes,

mistakes are inevitable but many will disappear by themselves after the learner is exposed to sufficient language input, both in oral and written forms.

In the next section, I will address a linguistic theory that is very much in line with DST: usage-based linguistics.

2.2 Dynamic usage-based linguistics

A linguistic theory that complements a DST view of complex systems is usage-based linguistics (UBL). This theory holds that language structure emerges through repeated language use (Langacker, 2000; Tomasello, 2003). In line with Langacker (2000), Verspoor et al. (2012) call it dynamic usage-based (DUB) linguistics to emphasize the link between DST and UBL. In what follows, I review four principle tenets of DUB linguistics and summarize empirical studies that, although they are built upon usage-based theories of linguistics, can also be seen to overlap with a dynamic usage-based approach.

First, unlike traditional Chomskian linguistics, which views language as a set of innately stored syntactic rules that drive the language system, DUB linguistics sees language as a large array of conventional, meaningful units in which schematic patterns emerge through use and interaction (Langacker, 1987a). This means that conventional units are shaped when language users in a speech community recurrently comprehend and produce specific linguistic patterns. The more people hear a linguistic pattern and use it to convey a certain concept, the more likely it becomes a conventional unit. For example, at first, the pattern *going to* was used to mean literally *moving somewhere* as in *I am going to deliver these newspapers,* meaning *I now physically leave here to go to deliver the newspapers.* Over time, the phrase has a new meaning of planned futurity, as in *I'm going to get married next month*, meaning *I plan to get married next month.* A second example of a conventional unit is expressed in greetings. In greeting someone, an English speaker would say "Hi, how are you?"/ "How are you doing?"/ and "What's up?" while a Vietnamese speaker would say, in Vietnamese, "Hi, how are you?"/ "Where are you going?"/ and "What are you doing?" These constructions are used to signify "hello" as this is their conventionally understood meaning in that particular language community. These constructions are conventionalized by the frequent, repeated use of the speech community and considered "conventionalized ways of saying things" (CWOSTs), (cf. Smiskova, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2012). Larsen-Freeman and Cameron summarize this idea aptly: "Language is the way it is because of the way it has been used" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008: 115).

A second principle of DUB linguistics is that the dynamic language system has self-organized into form-meaning pairs or constructions at many different levels (morpheme, word, collocation, phrase, formulaic sequence, clause, sentence and discourse level utterance). These constructions may be specific and more abstract constructions. At the word level, the form is the phonology of the word (the phonological pole), and the meaning is the meaning of the word (the semantic pole). The construction at the word level is fully specific. In contrast, in the case of a sentence, the construction can be more abstract. For example, the English ditransitive construction [someone] [gives] [someone else] [something] is an abstract construction. In terms

of form in this construction, there are four lexical elements in this pattern. In terms of meaning, the whole construction has an abstract meaning of *transfer* (Steinkrauss, 2009). Therefore, when a child learns a language, he or she not only learns the specific representation of form and meaning, but also the abstract representation of form and meaning as well. The child does so through humans' general learning mechanisms such as association, categorization and abstraction (Langacker, 2000: 4-5).

A third principle of DUB linguistics in L1 acquisition is that communicative usage events lead the child to acquire the language that adults produce. Usage events are "actual instances of language use, in their full phonetic detail and contextual understanding" (Langacker, 2008: 81). When the child communicates with adults (e.g., caretakers, babysitters, and parents), he or she hears the sounds of the language, pictures the context in which the language is used to convey a meaning, and gradually acquires the adult language through those meaning-based contexts. This means that, in DUB perspectives, meaning creates a need for form, not the other way around. All language forms, from single sounds to words, chunks, clauses, and sentences contribute to and express meaning. There are no clear demarcations between different aspects of language (sound, form, grammar, and meaning). As Stubbs puts it, "there is no boundary between lexis and grammar: lexis and grammar are interdependent" (Stubbs, 1996: 36). Take the sentence "I don't know." In this sentence, there are elements of phonology (how each word is pronounced), morphology (how each word looks), syntax (how the sentence is formed grammatically), semantics (what each word means and what the whole sentence means literally), and pragmatics (the intended meaning relying on the manner, place, time, etc. of the utterance). Everything pertaining to any aspect of language is equally important because it conveys meaning.

A fourth principle of DUB linguistics is that L1 language acquisition takes place at bottom up levels, going from holophrases to schemas, then to item-based constructions, and finally abstract constructions. Holophrases are one-word utterances or unanalyzed chunks of speech. For example, an English-speaking child may go through three stages of acquiring negations. He or she may say "No kitty," then "That no kitty," and finally "That wasn't a kitty". Interestingly, L2 adult learners may go through this process in the same way as a child does with his/her learning the L1. Language learners usually do not use the more abstract constructions in which they just have to fill a gap, but they use specific learned expressions instead. These fixed expressions are called formulaic sequences or chunks. Learners perceive and produce such units repeatedly and may store them as a whole. As a result, these sequences are processed as a single unit and retrieved as such. L1 learners are naturally exposed to this process; for them, producing and storing chunks goes automatically. However, Smiskova-Gustafsson (2013, chapter 6) shows that L2 learners may also have schematic constructions from their L1 in place that they fill with words often directly translated from the L1. Still, for both L1 and L2 learners it is crucial that they are exposed to such units frequently in order to be able to store and reproduce these units in the future. MacWhinney (2008) states that chunking is necessary for language learning since it enables fluent language production because it takes less time and effort to retrieve a chunk from memory than to build a sentence from single words.

To date, an increasing number of empirical studies, either longitudinal or cross-sectional, into L2 development have taken a usage-based perspective and support the general idea of non-linear second language development, usage events, and examplar-based second language learning.

Bardovi-Harlig (2002) examined longitudinal data to determine if process could account for the emergence of future expressions (e.g., *will* and *going to*) among ESL learners. Sixteen learners of various L1 backgrounds (five Arabic, six Japanese, two Korean, and three Spanish) participated in the study which ranged from 7 to 17.5 months. The learners took a beginning course at an Intensive English Program at Indiana University. They attended classes 23 hours a week, receiving instruction in listening and speaking, reading, writing, and grammar. Because they were in the host country, participants also had contact with English outside the school, through communicating with native and other non-native speakers of English. As one would expect from a DST perspective, it was reported that participants differed in their rates of development and eventual proficiency. Primary data was collected every seven weeks during the instruction period, resulting in a large collection of 1,576 written texts of different genres (free-writing journal entries, compositions, essays, and silent-film-based narratives) and 175 oral texts of different forms (guided conversational interviews and silent-film-based narratives and ensuing conversations). Results showed that all participants used a great deal of *will*, with a total of over 1,400 tokens in the written sample and more than 700 tokens in the oral sample, which seems like an overuse of *will* from a DST perspective. However, tokens of *going to* appeared in a substantially smaller number; participants produced only 249 tokens of *going to* in the written corpus and 52 in the oral corpus. These results showed that *going to* is largely formulaic for some of the learners, appearing primarily in the phrase *I am going to write (about).* In contrast, there was little formulaic use of *will,* since it appeared from the earliest stages with a wide variety of verbs. That is, the structure "will plus a (different) verb" was not formulaic enough for the learners to pick up. Bardovi-Harlig's study (2002) indicated that a usage-based approach to second language acquisition shows variation, overuse of some constructions, and the emergence of some formulaic sequence.

Mellow (2006) and Eskildsen and Cadierno (2007) also investigated longitudinal data, but of single subjects. In Mellow's study, the subject was a 12- year-old Spanish learner of English as a second language. Using O'Grady's framework of emergentist syntax (2005), the study reveals that relative clauses appear initially with a limited set of verbs (i.e., they are item-based). The data shows that complex aspects of language gradually emerged from item-based and compositional learning processes that interacted with the learner's environment, including input frequency and the functional purposes for which language is used. The study suggested that item-based, sign-based, and compositional analyses of constructions are valuable for syllabus design (for synthetic syllabi) and for the evaluation of language proficiency (i.e., testing and measurement).

Eskildsen and Cadierno (2007) studied the use of L2 English multi-word expressions (MWE) of a learner, suggesting that the L2 learner does not hold on to a certain fixed expression, but is able to generalize it to a more abstract construction over time. The informant was a Spanish-speaking L1 adult learner of English as a second language. The data analyzed

were the informant's free speech spoken in class which was recorded from September 2001 through February 2005 and stored in the MAELC (Multimedia Adult English Learner Corpus) database. After transcribing the data and screening them, the researchers decided to focus on the use of English negation constructions due to their prevalence throughout the recording and the obvious nature of their form-meaning pattern (Eskildsen & Cardierno, 2007). The study had three related results.

First, the researchers found that while the learner used three distinct negation patterns during the period from 2001 to 2005, namely (a) recurrent target language MWE *I don't know*, (b) learner pattern: *Subject no Verb* (e.g., *I no remember*), and (c) target language pattern: Aux-neg pattern (e.g., *I don't think so*), over these years he steadily and dramatically reduced the use of the learner pattern to the point that it completely disappeared in 2005. At the same time, he kept using the MWE *I don't know* and increased the use of the target language pattern a great deal. This result suggested that the learner had developed a path of learning in which he underwent three overlapping stages: (1) using the target language MWE *I don't know* and the learner pattern; (2) using the target language MWE *I don't know*, the learner pattern, and the target pattern; and finally (3) using the target language MWE *I don't know* and the target pattern. Second, when the researchers looked into the type-token frequencies of the target language pattern and the learner pattern in the data, they found that a more abstract system was emerging. For one thing, the learner was found not only to use the target language MWE *I don't know* very often, but also employ other possible MWEs (*I don't think so, I don't remember*, and *I don't have NP*). These possible MWEs were not choosen as the target language MWE for that study because *I don't remember*, and *I don't have NP* were used only once in 2004, and *I don't think so* had a remarkedly lower token frequency compared to that of *I don't know*. Secondly, the learner used more negated verbs in the target pattern. Finally, the study found that over time the learner was able to go from the concrete item to the abstract system by being able to use the aux-neg construction in a variety of verbs (e.g., *I don't know, I don't think so, I don't agree, I don't know exactly, I don't know much about, I don't have NP*), with more pronouns (e.g., *You don't take a shower?*), with questions (e.g., *Do you have X? You have X? You don't know? You don't go? You don't come to X? How do you say X? How do you write that? How do you spell that?*), and especially in the simple past tense (e.g., *How did you pronounce that? We did many things*).

Several cross-sectional studies that can be interpreted from a DUB perspective are worth mentioning: Verspoor, Schmid, and Xu (2012), Zyzik (2006), Smiskova & Verspoor (in press), Verspoor and Smiskova (2012) and Rousse-Malpat & Verspoor (2012).

In their cross-sectional study, Verspoor, Schmid, and Xu (2012) tried to gain insight into the dynamic development of high school Dutch learners of English by first holistically scoring 437 texts on proficiency level (from 1 to 5) and then analyzing each text on 64 variables. The statistical analyses showed that broad, frequently occurring, measures such as sentence length, the Guiraud index, total number of dependent clauses, total number of chunks, total number of errors, and the use of present and past tense showed significant differences between consecutive levels, almost suggesting a linear development. However, when specific constructions were examined, non-linear development, variation, and changing relationships

among the variables became apparent. Between levels 1 and 2 mainly lexical changes took place, between levels 2 and 3 mainly syntactic changes occurred, and between levels 3 and 4 both lexical and syntactic changes appeared. The transition between levels 4 and 5 was characterized by chunk changes only: particles, compounds, and fixed phrases. Another finding was that the learners overused the present perfect tense and the progressive at one stage, suggesting stages of overgeneralization. The study suggests that learners focus on different things at different levels. Early on learners focus most on the words they need, then they focus on different kinds of syntactic constructions and once those are in place, they especially focus on chunks. Moreover, stages of overgeneralization may occur in some constructions.

Stages of overgeneralization were also found by Zyzik (2006). She examined transitivity alternations in Spanish as a second language (e.g., the contrast between transitive *romper* 'to break' and intransitive *romperse* 'to break'), suggests that L2 learners acquire the uses of the clitic *se* on a verb-by-verb basis and overgeneralize *se* to transitive contexts (predicted by a sequence-learning account) at lower levels of development.

Smiskova and Verspoor (in press) zoomed in on the development of chunks in sub-groups of the learners in the Verspoor, et al. (2012) study in a pre-posttest design in two conditions: a low-input group (2 hours of English per week) and a high-input group (15 hours a week). They saw several important differences among the groups. Both groups used increasingly more chunks tokens, developed a greater range of chunk types, and used longer chunks, but the high-input learners developed a greater range of chunk types including those with a clear discourse function, a greater number of "normal ways of saying things", and a greater proportion of chunk-words per text. At the end of the study, the high input learners texts consisted of about 46% in chunk words, which is very close to Erman and Warren's (2000) estimate of about a 50% proportion of chunks in native speaker text. The authors conclude that the development of chunks in high-input learners is more native-like than the development in low-input learners.

Verspoor and Smiskova (2012) also looked at the developmental patterns of two individual learners and note that the low-input learner shows a random like variability without clear developmental stages, whereas the high input learner shows this random-like variability early on, but after a year there is a rather sudden increase of variability and then a new stage. They conclude that the use of chunks develops slowly at first, and then shows a spurt. This finding is in line with the cross-sectional data in Verspoor et al. (2012) examined. Between proficiency levels 4 (intermediate) and 5 (high intermediate), the learners show a significant difference in the use of chunks: particles, compounds and fixed phrases. From these findings it can be concluded that the high-input condition does lead to more chunks, but not immediately. The L2 learners may have to have other language sub-systems in place (e.g. lexicon and syntax) before the use of chunks takes off.

Rousse-Malpat & Verspoor (2012) investigated the effectiveness of a high-input versus low input instruction of French as an L2 over two years. The low-input method is operationalized by a traditional course in the Netherlands, inspired by CLT principles with some listening and reading but also with explicit grammatical explanations. Despite the CLT principles, however, there is little actual, natural interaction in French during the lessons and

the teacher usually speaks Dutch to give the grammar explanations. The high-input instructional method was operationalized by the Accelerated Integrative Method (AIM), also based on CLT principles but it provides a 'French only' context with stories, plays or music and a gesture approach to help comprehension. From day one, students are immersed in the L2 and are not allowed to use their L1. With the help of gestures words or word order are made clear. There are no explicit grammar rules and the learners are encouraged to use phrases and chunks from the stories into plays. Only after about six months of exposure are students introduced to reading and writing.

Both the low and high input learners had 3 hours a week of instruction and both were taught by the same teachers (teacher A had a low and high input group and teacher B had a low and high input group). The learners were tested on free response data in an oral task after two years (21 months) of instruction. The groups were compared on general proficiency and grammatical accuracy. Proficiency was operationalized as the (combined) score on oral fluency, vocabulary accuracy and aural comprehension measures. The high-input learners outscored the low-input learners significantly on the combined score and on all three sub-measures of this oral proficiency test. For the accuracy study, three constructions that were taught explicitly in the low-input group and that frequently occurred in the high-input group were examined: negation, the present tense and the use of gender. The analyses showed that the two groups used these three constructions equally often and equally accurately. The authors also note that the high-input learners seemed to be more creative in their language use. The general conclusion that may be drawn from this longitudinal study is that a high input condition positively affects general proficiency but does not negatively affect grammatical accuracy.

In summary, some of the empirical studies show the benefit of a high-input approach and others clearly show that development is not linear and only limited sets of constructions may occur at the early stages of learning. In the current study, proficiency development will be measured rather holistically by means of several test, but in one sub-study the use of chunks or formulaic sequences will be focused on. Even though the experimental students will have been exposed to more authentic chunks than the control students, the extra exposure may not directly translate into more frequent use of chunks in their own writings because both Smiskova and Verspoor (2012) and Verspoor, et al. (2012) showed that chunks develop more at advanced stages.

2.3 A DUB approach to second language teaching

As seen from the previous section, quite a number of recent studies have looked at L2 learner language development, using a (dynamic) usage-based perspective. That is, these studies have looked at the development of the learners, trying to understand the dynamic process of learning an L2. However, there have not been any reported studies that apply the principles of DUB in teaching a second language. Thus, the study reported in this dissertation will attempt to fill this gap. Before outlining the study in Chapter 3, we will discuss what tenets a DUB approach to a second language teaching could encompass.

When translating DUB principles to second language teaching, we will assume that language is mainly lexically driven, that meaning is central, that lexicon and grammar form a continuum, and that grammar is only a very small part of language that sub-serves meaning. Therefore, the approach should focus on the meaning of all forms in the continuum: sounds, intonation, words, phrases, conventional units, grammatical patterns and sentence patterns and so on, and all preferably in meaningful context exchanges, approximating socially and culturally normal usage events. We will also assume that one of the absolute prerequisites for internalizing the form-meaning mappings will be frequency of exposure. To this end, a DUB approach to second language teaching should be based on the following principles.

2.3.1 Input before output

The first characteristic of a DUB approach to second language teaching is the vital focus on input. In general, input is the target language being exposed to a language learner in auditory and written form (Gass & Mackey, 2006). In an L2 learning context, input should be taken more specifically. According to Krashen (1982, 1985, 1991), language input that is needed for L2 learners to acquire the target language should be comprehensible input – one that is made meaningful to them so they understand what they are reading or listening to. He postulates that "comprehensible input is the essential environmental ingredient in language acquisition" (Krashen, 1991: 409). Richards, Platt, & Weber also define input as "language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn" (Richards et al., 1989: 143). This means that if a learner is simply exposed to what he or she hears or reads without being able to learn from what is being spoken or read to, that kind of exposure is not yet the kind of input that the L2 learner can make use of. It could be because the linguistic material is either too easy or too difficult for the learner to understand. In fact, Krashen (1982: 21) has argued that L2 input that can be useful for the learner to acquire the language has to be at the level of or can be slightly beyond the learner's current level of linguistic competence, as described in the formula *i*+1, where *i* is the input that is appropriate for the learner's current proficiency and *1* is the input that is one step beyond this.

In line with Krashen (1982) and Richards et al. (1989), VanPattern and Benati (2010) state that input is the language that the learner is exposed to in a meaningful, communicative event. That is, when a learner hears or reads it, he or she tries to get a meaning out of it. Therefore, the authors distinguish communicative input from un-communicative words or sentences that the teacher uses as examples (e.g., when teaching the English simple present tense, the teacher may give such examples as "The earth revolves around the sun" to illustrate the "truth" usage of the tense). This sentence is only an example of a formal linguistic feature-the simple present tense). It is not yet the input that L2 learners need for L2 acquisition because it does not carry a communicative purpose. The authors also differentiate communicative input from output, which is the language the learner produces. This is important to note, as the language that the learners produce when speaking in class does not constitute the authentic input that other L2 learners (i.e., their peers) need for L2 acquisition. VanPattern & Benati write.

> Input consists of language that L2 learners are exposed to in a communicative context. That is, it is language that learners hear or read that they process for its message or meaning. As such, it is distinct from language that, say, the instructor might provide as models or examples of how to do something. It is distinct from language that learners process purely for its formal features. It is also distinct from **output** (original emphasis), language the learners produce. (VanPattern & Benati, 2010: 94-95)

In order for input to be meaningful and communicative, it should be authentic. The term *authentic materials* may mean different things to different people (see Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2008, for a review of definitions of authenticity). In the current study, authentic input is defined as real-life language materials, not produced for pedagogic purposes (Wallace, 1992), but for real-life communication by real people (Nuttall, 2005). Authentic materials are ones that are written or spoken for native speakers, contain real language, and are produced to "fulfill some social purpose in the language community" (Little, Devitt, & Singleton, 1989: 25). Bacon believes that *real language* must be "intelligible, informative, truthful, relevant and socio-linguistically appropriate" (Bacon, 1989: 545). According to these definitions, examples of authentic materials that can be used in the L2 classroom are signs, advertisements, newspapers, magazines, pictures, symbols, radio news, TV programs, movies, songs, literature, and the Internet. Using authentic materials in the L2 classroom not only exposes learners to as much real language as possible, but also shows them that language is real, and that real information helps them both to learn language and to understand the world outside.

Output is the target language that learners produce. Some researchers suggest that input alone may not be sufficient for second language acquisition; output should be practiced too. Merrill Swain, the originator of the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), has claimed that output, not solely input, has some role in second language acquisition. According to Swain (1995), output has three roles. First, output promotes noticing. The learner may notice a linguistic problem he or she is facing when he or she wants to express something and does not know how to linguistically. To solve the problem, the learner is pushed to make modifications and thus is forced into a more syntactic processing mode. Second, output can serve to test hypotheses about the language the learner is learning. According to Swain (1995), second language learners develop a hypothesis about how the language they are learning works. When producing the language (i.e., output), they can test their hypothesis by receiving feedback. If the hypothesis is wrong, they can self-correct. In so doing, they learn the language better. Third, output helps learners to "reflect on language, allowing learners to control and internalize it" (Swain, 1995:132). De Bot (1996) also argues that production practice can serve to reinforce knowledge that has already been acquired through comprehensible input.

Indeed, output can help language learning, but "there is no research that demonstrates that output is necessary and even Swain has softened her claim a bit since 1985" (Van Patten & Benati, 2010:38). I do not wish to argue that output does not help second language learning; however, because of limited human capacity, it would be argued that early production of the target language may be a burden for beginners (or false-beginners). Krashen (1981) advocates

that in order for L1 or L2 acquisition to take place, early output and output correction should be avoided. Instead, the acquisition environment should be provided with plenty of understandable input, and in a relaxed learning context.

As mentioned earlier, Caspi (2010) shows that first learners need to hear words passively and after that are able to write the words in sentences. In other words, the study shows that production comes later. Similarly, Nation (1985: 15) proposes a delay in speaking. Therefore, if low proficiency learners are encouraged to produce output before they are exposed to sufficient input, they are put in situations where they have to swim against the current. Some may be pushed back by the strong stream. Others may try to reach the other end of the river in exhaustion and in vain. Since the participants in the current study were low-proficiency learners, they may be considered as poor swimmers, unable to develop linguistically if they are required to swim against the current (i.e., produce language) before they have received sufficient authentic input. Therefore, we assume that the input-before-output view of foreign language instruction would better suit the low-proficiency learners such as these.

2.3.2 Frequent exposure to input

Frequency of input is important in SLA. Unlike Universal Grammar models which do not readily consider frequency of input as a causal variable in language acquisition (Zyzik, 2009), usage-based approaches emphasize the need for frequency of input in L2 learning (Ellis, 2002; Ellis & Collins, 2009; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), especially when it comes to be incidental learning (Schmitt, 2000).

As Ellis (2002) amongst others argues, frequency of input is the main contributor to the language acquisition process. According to Nagy (1997: 74) the chance of learning and retaining a word from reading it one time is only about 5%-14%, so it is obvious that "lexical acquisition requires multiple exposures to a word" (Schmitt, 2000: 137). Based on a review of the vocabulary acquisition literature, Schmitt (2010) estimates that 8–10 exposures to a word should lead to a reasonable chance that a word is remembered. Therefore, the learner needs to be exposed to the L2 language repeatedly and the goal should be to revisit it at least eight times.

The discussion on frequency of input so far has implicitly focused on the frequency of single words, but words do not occur in isolation: words are known by the company they keep (Mackin, 1978). Indeed, as Langacker (2008: 81) points out, mastering a language requires the specific, usage-based learning of a vast array of conventional units (i.e., combinations of words that conventionally go together). Therefore, this calls for frequent exposure to conventional units as well. For example, along with exposing beginning EFL learners to individual words such as *friend, school,* and *first* EFL teachers should also teach them multi-words such as *best friend, at school*, and *for the first time*. Multi-word verbs such as *make a wish, come on, get started* and adjective-noun collocations such as *good job, hard work, long way, dark night* should also be exposed to the learners. Formulaic sequences which are often longer conventional units such as *Nice to meet you, I know what you mean, One thing I am sure of is,* are also recommended to be included in vocabulary instruction. Ideally this exposure should

occur in meaningful context exchanges, approximating socially and culturally normal usage events.

Because words are probably the most meaningful elements in a language, language is driven lexically rather than syntactically. Therefore, the current study focuses mainly on exposing the learners to whole conventional meaningful units from which the learner should be able to infer schematic patterns. Words are used in combination with other words to form collocations, formulaic sequences and conventionalized patterns, many of which are schematic clause constructions, but others in turn may become so conventionalized that they become rather fixed and become a "conventionalized way of saying things" (CWOST) (Smiskova, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2012). The more a linguistic pattern is used to convey a certain concept, the more likely it becomes a conventional unit. Particularly, longer conventional units are difficult for the L2 learner to acquire as the learner may not be exposed to them frequently enough; moreover, they are often not entirely predictable, nor translatable. Therefore, rather than focusing on grammatical forms, the approach of the current study focuses almost entirely on the use of lexical items and "the company they keep" (Mackin, 1978), an approach very much in line with the lexical approach as advocated by Lewis (1993).

Of course, mere exposure may not be enough. As VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) point out, the more linguistic forms are noticed, the better the chance to establish the form-meaning connections, thus developing learners' ability to comprehend the meaning in spoken or written messages (Schmidt, 1990). In the current approach, listening repeatedly to the same movie scene is in line with narrow listening as advocated by Krashen (1996).

Studies on vocabulary acquisition show that virtually anything that leads to more exposure, attention, manipulation, or time spent on lexical items adds to vocabulary gains. Schmitt (2008) suggests the term *engagement* to encompass all of these involvement possibilities, and concludes that essentially anything that leads to more and better engagement should improve vocabulary learning. Therefore promoting engagement is the most fundamental task for teachers and materials writers, and indeed, learners themselves.

2.3.3 Exposure to authentic usage-based events

With CLT, the paradigm of teaching English as a second/foreign language has shifted. In the past, often formal language was introduced in a language classroom. Very formal structures like *It's very kind of you to say so* were introduced in EFL textbooks and learners seldom heard them spoken by anyone (non-natives as well as natives) in real life. The view today is that classroom language should also be spoken language (Derewianka, 2007: 854). General words like *stuff* and *things* should be exploited by the teacher to get meaning across (Lewis, 1993). Written language such as *It is very kind of you to say so/ We were close / I never felt I lacked anything* should be supplemented with spoken language *Thanks/Thank you for your kind words/ We felt like family/I never felt like I missed out on anything*. This change in pedagogy is based on the premise that people learn a language to communicate verbally first and foreign language learning should be both informative and entertaining. Froehlich observes:

> […] the learning process today is characterized by being informed and entertained simultaneously through a combination of complementary, easily absorbable signals to our senses… Foreign language education nowadays has to be fun. (Froehlich, 1999: 150-151)

From Froehlich's observation we can infer that L2 learners today enjoy learning in contexts where they can both hear and see native speakers of the L2, often in an entertaining way such as watching film or movies in the L2. In the current study, movies were chosen as spoken language input. Language spoken in movies approximates spoken language in real life (Schmitt, 2010); therefore, movie lines could be considered as authentic input for second language learning.

There are several good reasons for the choice of a movie rather than any other video material. (1) In a good movie, actors will act as naturally as possible, coming as close as foreign languages learners can get to "real life". (2) The language of movies is usually very close to everyday, natural language (Tatsuki, 2006; Schmitt, 2010) and therefore provides authentic models. (3) The characters have natural conversations in meaningful context exchanges, approximating socially and culturally normal usage events. (4) By including the context, the visuals, facial expressions and other extra-linguistic clues, the learners will have clues that will aid in their understanding and retention of lexical items (Snyder & Colon, 1988). Also, these extra clues will form associations, and as Anderson and Reder (1979) point out the more associations the easier it is to remember. (5) The movie will provide examples of cultural, social or pragmatic issues that can be elaborated upon by the teacher. (6) The scenes can be repeated as often as needed, giving learners the benefit of exact repetitions. (7) Cut up in two-to-three minute scenes, the whole movie works as a "soap opera" in that the learners are curious about what happens next. (8) The movie often provides a natural context for conversations to emerge among the students and teacher in class because students want to know or share their opinions about the characters or events in the movie. Movies may initiate authentic conversation that would not have occurred if learners were merely asked their opinions on textbook scenarios. This then provides the teacher with positive confirmation that the students are engaging fully with the film and thereby the language surrounding the film (anecdotal experience from Stewart, 2006).

Using movies in second language instruction is very much in line with early communicative approaches in the use of input and authenticity (Abbs, Cook & Underwood, 1980), in the focus on meaning and communication such as in the natural approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), and use of dialogues to develop strategic competence (Roberts, 1986). The current approach is also very much in line with Krashen's view of language acquisition:

> What current theory implies, quite simply, is that language acquisition, first or second, occurs when comprehension of real messages occurs, and when the acquirer is not "on the defensive". Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill. It does not occur overnight, however. Real language acquisition develops slowly, and speaking skills emerge

> significantly later than listening skills, even when conditions are perfect. The best methods are therefore those that supply "comprehensible input" in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are 'ready', recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production. Krashen (1982: 6-7)

There are; however, a few differences between Krashen's views and ours. The first difference is the recognition that language is seen as an array of conventionalized patterns and that if we see form as only the few grammar rules that can be explained then we miss most of the language. In our approach there is focus on form, but then defined as any form-meaning pair, and all given implicitly. The second difference is also inspired by a usage-based view: the main factor in language development is frequency, so the goal is to revisit all form-meaning pairs about eight times in different ways and engage with the text differently each time. The third difference is the role of the teacher, who needs to mediate between the authentic text and the learners' use of it to develop their own understanding with different scaffolding strategies.

2.3.4 Exposure to chunks

Second language teaching has tended to deal with individual words; however, "it is becoming increasingly clear that formulaic language is an important element of language learning and use" (Schmitt, 2010: 9). Formulaic language refers to "sequences of words that are stored and retrieved as a unit from memory at the time of use, rather than generated online using the full resources of the grammar of the language" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: 210). Put simply, these linguistic sequences are combinations of words that frequently go together such as *best friend, nice to meet you,* and *take a look at this* (for a typology of chunks used by young Dutch L1 learners of L2 English, see Smiskova & Verspoor, 2012) and learners produce each combination as a whole, saving time from remembering each individual word in the string. In the second language teaching environment, the strings of these words are nowadays generally refered to as chunks.

In line with a DUB approach to language, which sees language as an array of conventional units, several earlier studies have shown the importance of chunks in second language teaching. Lewis' (1993) Lexical Approach was the first attempt to emphasize the link between formulaic sequences and communicativeness in second language teaching. According to Lewis:

> The Lexical Approach suggests that increasing competence and communicative power are achieved by extending the students' repertoire of *lexical phrases, collocational power* (emphasis added), and increasing mastery of the most basic words and structures of the language. It is simply not the case that "advanced" users of the language use ever more complex sentence structures. (Lewis, 1993: 48)

It can be inferred from Lewis' view that it is better to teach good, simple language in terms of semantics as well as grammar, but that the language should be presented in its collocational usage. That is, L2 words should be learnt as multi-words, rather than as individual words only.

Lewis (2000: 175) also observes that knowledge of formulaic chunks helps "learners to be more able to process other language, which enables them to communicate more complex messages, or simple messages with greater fluency or accuracy." This means that a learner who uses simple but formulaic language rather than complex grammar structures will be likely to be more articulate. Lewis (1993: 122) suggests that it is important for classroom teachers to introduce the idea of chunking to learners and presenting them materials that are filled with chunks.

Agreeing with Lewis (1993, 2000), Schmitt states that "the realization that words act less as individual units and more as part of lexical phrases in interconnected discourse is one of the most important new trends in vocabulary studies. These lexical phrases in language reflect the way the mind tends to 'chunk' language in order to make it easier to process" (Schmitt, 2000: 78). Hill also comments that EFL learners often fail to express their thoughts "because they do not know the four or five most important collocates of a key word that is central to what they are writing about" (Hill, 2000: 50). In addition, Trappes-Lomax notices that "attention to the role of lexical phrases or "chunks" in relation to functional and contextual features of discourse (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992) has been hugely significant in recent years, contributing the development of lexical approach to language teaching" (Trappes-Lomax, 2004: 155). Nation (2001) also emphasizes the inclusion of multi-word units in teaching vocabulary. He points out that knowing multi-words units help learners sound like a native speaker. Out of all possible ways of saying things only some expressions will be preferred. For example, in expressing that there is a lot of rain the native speaker will refer to "heavy rain" rather that "rain that is falling hard". Learning multi-word units can thus contribute to accuracy and appropriatecy.

As clearly seen, Lewis' proposal of teaching "chunks" to L2 learners is widely received by both researchers and educators (Schmitt, 2000). This is because being able to use conventional units helps L2 learners to gain more credits. In fact, Verspoor, Schmid & Xu (2012) were able to show that the use of chunks was one of the strongest indicators in five L2 English proficiency levels (from beginner to high intermediate); in other words, the proficiency level of a learner correlated very strongly with the number of chunks s/he used.

However, what needs to be done further is to apply chunk teaching and see how it is beneficial in reality. As Schmitt points out:

> Lewis (1993, 1997) presents an approach to incorporating lexical phrases into language teaching, advocating a focus on including lexical patterns from language input and favoring exercises that concentrate on larger lexical phrases rather than individual words. His proposals are beginning to generate interest, but it must be said that at this point neither his nor Nattinger & DeCarrico's pedagogical ideas have been empirically tested for effectiveness in the classroom. (Schmitt, 2000: 112)

2.3.5 L1 as a scaffold to get meaning across

L2 learners should be exposed to the target language to acquire the language. However, mere exposure is not enough; they need to understand the meaning of what they are exposed to as well. In order to get meaning across to the learners, teachers today have a tendency to use the target language only with the help of visuals, paraphrasing, and examples. Another effective tool to get meaning across is the use of L1.

EFL teachers have tended to feel guilty if they have to use L1 in teaching L2 because the practice might bring them back to the Grammar-Translation Method which has been discredited in second language teaching for a long time. However, in recent years, focus has been shifting towards inclusion of the L1 in the language classroom – a view coming from "research influenced by Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory [where] the L1 is viewed as providing crucial scaffolding support as learners negotiate form and meaning" (Spada, 2007: 280).

Research has shown that the occasional use of L1 by both students and teachers increases both comprehension and learning of an L2 (Schweers, 1999; Wells, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Cook, 2001; Tang, 2002; Nation, 2003; Butzkamm, 2003; Murray, 2005). A survey of 155 Iranian learners of English on the effectiveness of L1 in L2 learning by Vaezi and Mirzaei suggests that if used purposefully and systematically, the mother tongue can have a constructive role in teaching other languages (Vaezi & Mirzaei, 2007). Another recent survey of twelve university Vietnamese teachers of English backed up by interviews with four of the informants indicates that the use of Vietnamese (L1) in English (L2) classrooms is useful in a number of ways: helping students to get the meaning of terminologies and abstract words faster, helping students to understand complex grammatical points better, helping students to understand difficult new words more clearly, and making sure that students understand the lessons (Kieu, 2010). In Taiwan, a recent large-scale survey of more than 200 learners' attitude about the English-only approach shows that beginner EFL learners (twelve years old) are not very much in favor of this approach (Lee, 2012). In a similar vein, in his plenary talk at the Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (FLTAL) Conference, Sarajevo, in May 2012, Vivian Cook "lifted the embargo" on the use of the L1:

> For many years the first language has been more or less banned from the language teaching classroom for various, mostly invalid, reasons. The concept of L2 users reminds us that the L2 user is a whole, not split into L1 and L2 sides; they are not learning a language in isolation but are learning it with a mind that already knows another language. This influences their knowledge and use of both languages and, what is crucial for language teaching, their learning of the new language. Rather than strive in vain to quarantine the first language from the classroom, teachers should admit it and treat it as an ally. (Cook, 2012)

It is generally recognized that the L1 is not a taboo in L2 classrooms. Yet, how much the L1 is used should be judiciously considered (Spada, 2007; Turnbull, 2001). Spada suggests that the use of L1 in L2 classrooms depends on "the broader linguistic context" (Spada, 2007: 281). According to Spada (2007), in situations where minority language learners risk forgetting their L1 when integrating into the mainstream culture and language, opportunities for the use of L1 as a basis for L2 learning should be maximized. On the contrary, in foreign language settings where exposure to the target language is restricted to the classroom, the idea is to maximize the L2 and minimize the L1.

In the current study, which was set in a foreign language setting, L1 is used mainly to explain the meanings of the expressions used in the movie. Although studies about the effective use of L1 in L2 classroom have been largely qualitative, based on classroom observations and surveys of teachers' beliefs as to why L1 should be used in L2 classrooms, avoiding using L1 in L2 classroom has been deemed impossible, especially when learners are at the beginning level and the number of hours of instruction seems to be less than desirable. The answer seems to be that as long as the language classroom is supplied with abundant authentic input, optimal use of L1 in helping learners better understand the material seems to be meaningful. The DUB approach to second language teaching that the current study adopts is one that is meaning-based and allows for multiple exposure to authentic spoken input (movie scenes). This requires a good deal of time for a movie scene to be watched several times and for the lines to be explained sentence by sentence, making sure learners understand the story line. In order to compensate for the time taken for movie watching and explanation, instructors of the current study are able to use the mother tongue (Vietnamese) in situations where vocabulary and movie lines need to be translated as a time-saving technique, that would still allow for more exposure to language input.

2.3.6 DUB implication for a CLT approach

Taking the theoretical insights provided just now, we conclude that an effective CLT approach should include a great amount of authentic input, preferably in the form of naturally occurring usage events, where utterances can be understood within their social, cultural and pragmatic context. The language should be within the learners' zone of proximal development and through the interaction with the learners, the teacher should scaffold the text until the learner can understand it independently. The linguistic focus should be on form-meaning pairs at all levels (sound, morpheme, word, phrase, chunk, and sentence). The learner needs to be exposed to these form-meaning pairs repeatedly and the goal should be to revisit them about eight times. Finally, the learner needs to be engaged with the language; in other words, the language the learner is exposed to should be of inherent interest to the student. Especially because of this last requirement, the authentic input in our approach is provided by means of a popular movie, one that appeals to our students. The movie needs to be selected based on content (whether it interests the students) and language use (whether it is appropriate, has enough language, enough every day conversations, and so on).

2.4 Studies in line with a DUB approach to second language teaching

A usage-based approach to second language learning has increasingly been studied, but a usage-based approach to second language teaching has been rare. Still, several previous empirical studies are supportive of a number of aspects used in the current usage-based approach to second language teaching, although none fully embody all elements of a DUB approach.

2.4.1 The effect of input

Verspoor & Winitz (1997) investigated the effect of a lexical-input approach, very much in line with usage-based principles, on proficiency of intermediate ESL students at an American university and found the approach conducive to second language learning. The study had two experiments. In Experiment 1, a control group (n = 13) attended a formal English class in which they were given reading, speaking, and grammar lessons for a 15-week semester. Experimental group participants (n = 13) were provided with the same curriculum plus an extra intensive listening program. The intensive listening program involved them in self-study at a language laboratory for the same semester. At the laboratory, participants were free to choose books they wished to study and accompanying tape recordings. The books were designed with a focus on lexical fields such as "walking," "school," and "telephone." With an emphasis on input and meaning, the intensive listening program was called a lexical input program. There was neither instruction (implicit or explicit) nor feedback during this lexical input program; the learners were completely self-paced and self-regulated. At the beginning of the course, the level of proficiency of the experimental group was lower than that of the control group, based on their scores on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (consisting of grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension). However, at the end of the course, both groups shared similar results on the same test. The difference in the gain scores (i.e., posttest scores minus pretest scores) of the test between the two groups was found significant, in favor of the experimental group. This experiment suggested that exposure to the target language via listening and reading was useful in helping learners acquire the language better. To see whether the formal instruction or the lexical-input instruction played a role in the success of the learners, the authors conducted another experiment.

In the second experiment, control group participants (n = 16) attended only a high input class in which they had intensive listening at the language lab and were shown movies in class. Experimental group participants (n = 16) were given the same curriculum plus a formal class of reading, speaking, and grammar lessons. Results showed that the two groups scored the same on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency on the posttest and there was no significant difference between them in the gain scores on the test. This second experiment suggested that an input-only approach could suffice; additional coursework such as speaking, reading, and grammar did non-significantly play a role in the success of the learners. Altogether, Verspoor & Winitz (1997) showed that a rich only-input approach to second

language learning benefited learners' L2 acquisition as well as, if not better than, the one that provided additional language skills (speaking, reading, and grammar).

Elley (1991) also provided evidence for the effectiveness of an input approach. Young EFL learners, 6 and 12 years of age, in the South Pacific islands read extensively (or were read to) from a large number of books. The focus was on the meaning of the stories. Little or no explicit instruction was given. The study found that the average language student's language proficiency increased much more from this increased input than from an audio-lingual program with which it was compared. The results indicate the value of such a "book flood" in providing the kind of exposure to the target language that learners need.

These two studies demonstrate that an input approach where L2 learners are exposed to a great deal of input can help the learners acquire the language better than one that may provide a lot of grammar and speaking.

2.4.2 The effect of narrow listening

In line with the intensive nature of Verspoor and Winitz's study (1997), Dupuy (1999) investigated the effects of Narrow Listening advocated by Krashen (1996) on language development of L2 French students at a large public American university. She found evidence for the efficacy of this input-only approach. Narrow Listening refers to the repeated listening of brief[1] interview-styled tape-recorded talks given by proficient native speakers on topics of general interest or familiarity. In this study, the topics were travel, food, house, environment, media, music, and books. Each topic was recorded by six native speakers, both males and females, who were given some topic prompts and asked to speak in a conversational manner (i.e., the speech contained characteristics of natural and informal language: redundancies, pauses, self-corrections, false-starts, varying word rate and intonation, etc.) as if they were speaking to a friend (Dupuy, 1999: 353).

A total of 255 students of first (n = 50), second (n = 75), third (n = 123), and fourth (n = 7) semester students of French as a foreign language were the participants of Dupuy's study (1999). At the beginning of the semester, they were given a handout that described the rationale of Narrow Listening, the main principles of narrow listening, some tips for narrow listening, and the nature of the topics so that they had a clear idea of the new method. Participants were free to participate or not and received no extra credit for the French course they were taking. This meant that the findings – even though obtained by self-assessment surveys – could reach a high level of reliability because the subjects were not likely to overrate their ability for the sake of the new method (Dupuy, 1999: footnote p. 359). The Narrow Listening tapes were made available in the language lab where participants would come and listen to the topic and speaker of their choice at their own pace and any number of times. Although not explicitly mentioned, it can be assumed that each tape recorded six speakers discussing one given topic and that the students studied would come to the lab more than once. When they asked for a tape, participants were given a questionnaire with six questions that they

[1] Approximately one or two minutes long.

filled out and handed in to the lab attendant when they returned the tape. The questionnaire asked six questions: (1) Which topic did you choose today? Circle the speakers you listened to, (2) How many times did you listen to each speaker? (3) What percentage did you understand the first time you listened to this speaker? (4) What percentage did you understand the last time you listened to this speaker? (5) Do you think that in general this activity helped you in improving your French? If yes, which skills (listening, comprehension, speaking, grammar, pronunciation, etc.) do you think you improved and how much (1 = most improved, 4 = least improved or not available)? And (6) How does Narrow Listening compare with other types of listening (e.g., lab tapes accompanying your textbook) that you have done in the lab before? Explain your answer briefly.

Analyzing questionnaire-based data of the four level groups of subjects separately, Dupuy found dramatic results. First, 244 of the 255 participants found Narrow Listening helpful for language acquisition. Only a small percentage of participants did not find it helpful because the speech was too fast for them and there was a frequency of filled pauses (e.g., "um"). Dupuy (1999: 354) explained that these students had been exposed to modified rather than authentic, natural input and this was why they found authentic speech too difficult. Second, on language skills, participants realized Narrow Listening increased their listening comprehension the most, with fluency and then vocabulary influenced to decreasing degrees. Third, about 43 % of first and second semester subjects reported that Narrow Listening was more effective than or at least about the same as listening to lab tapes accompanying the textbook used in classroom. For third and fourth semester subjects (66,5% and 86%, respectively), Narrow Listening tapes were reported to be much better than the textbook-accompanied tapes. Very few participants found Narrow Listening worse than listening to textbook-accompanied tapes. Fourth, the study also found that the approach was more beneficial for beginning-level students (the first and second semester subjects). The gain between first listening and last listening was greater for first and second semester students than third and fourth semester students. In addition, the study found that Narrow Listening increased confidence with French of the majority of participants. These findings showed that repeated narrow listening played an important role in L2 development and confidence with L2, assumedly a favorable factor for L2 development. Dupuy's qualitative study (1999) showed the value of repetition of input in listening comprehension, which was confirmed in Chang and Read's quantitative study (2006).

Chang and Read (2006) examined the effects of four different kinds of listening supports on the listening comprehension of EFL university-level learners, showing that input repetition (three times) and discussing the topic before a listening comprehension task were the most effective tools, compared to reading the questions beforehand and vocabulary instruction beforehand. The participants in the study were 160 business majors at a college in Taipei, Taiwan. Like the participants in the current study, they had studied English for about seven years and had little exposure to spoken English outside of class. They were in four intact classes (n = 40 each), taking a required course in English listening. Each class was given one of the four listening supports. All participants were assumed to have similar listening proficiency based on their TOEIC listening scores. However, for the purpose of the study, they were also

grouped into two levels of listening proficiency: Higher Listening Proficiency (those who scored 40 or above, mean = 44.64, n = 78) and Lower Listening Proficiency (those who scored 39 or below, mean = 35.06, n = 82).

The study took place for two class hours and the four classes each received a different treatment. In the first class hour, Class 1 (the Question Preview group) and Class 2 (the Repeated Input group) received no test preparation. They only listened to a previously-learnt material. Class 3 (the Topic Preparation group) and Class 4 (the Vocabulary Instruction group) received two different test preparation materials. Class 3 spent about 25 minutes reading background information in Chinese about good health (how to avoid a heart attack) and about the differences/similarities between Taiwan and New Zealand (the geography, population, and society). Then they had a teacher-led discussion of the two topics for about another 25 minutes. Class 4 studied a list of vocabulary (English words and Chinese equivalents) related to the two topics above-mentioned. The list contained 23 words taken from the listening text about good health, and 25 words from the listening text about New Zealand. Participants in Class 4 first studied the list by themselves for 25 minutes, and then were taught how to pronounce each word and given the differences in meaning of some of the words based on their parts of speech. After that they listened to eight short dialogues, which aimed to practice hearing how some of the target words sounded like in connected speech. In the second class hour, the listening test was given. In all four groups, participants got to preview the test questions. The difference was that only the Repeated Input group listened to the tape three times (listening for the first time, previewing questions, listening for the second time, and listening for the third time), while all the other groups listened to the tape only once (i.e., after seeing the questions). Using a general linear model univariate analysis with the types of listening support (4 treatments) and listening proficiency (2 levels: high and low) as the two independent variables and listening comprehension scores as the dependent variable to evaluate the effects of different types of listening support on the students' listening comprehension, the study showed that on the whole, the two most effective listening supports for listening comprehension were topic preparation and repeated input, although the former benefited both higher and lower listening proficiency learners, and the latter seemed to be benefical for only the higher listening proficiency students. Although Chang and Read's study (2006) focused on the testing part, it lent support to the efficacy of repetition of input in understanding the target language.

2.4.3 The effect of visual media

In addition to exposure to audio tapes and books, several researchers have looked at input through visual media, and have investigated its effectiveness. Visual media refers to commercial language videos, authentic entertainment TV soap opera videos, and full-length feature movies.

Herron, Morris, Secules, and Curtis (1994) investigated the effect of video-based versus text-based instruction in the foreign language classroom using a commercial language video and a textbook. The participants were two classes of first and second year university students learning French as a foreign language at Emory University. Control class participants

(n = 14) focused on learning new structures from texts, reading texts aloud and cultural notes, and expanding cultural information and vocabulary. Experimental group participants (n = 14) watched ten minutes of drama on Fridays, wrote answers in French to a series of comprehension questions on weekends, and watched twenty minutes of the explanation section of the drama on Mondays and Wednesdays. As the students watched the drama, the instructor, who was non-native, would stop every one or two minutes to check comprehension. As the students watched the explanation section, he would stop the explanation portion occasionally for repetition of key structures, for further explanation of a grammatical point, for comprehension checks, or for discussion of cultural differences. The experimental class participants were not only exposed to more spoken language from the video but also from the teacher talk because the instructor always used French in the explanation part. All participants took a total of five tests during the time of study: pretest, mid-semester French 101 test, final French 101 test, mid-semester French 102 test, and final French 102 test. The tests were both researcher-designed tests and standardized ones (the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview was used to test oral proficiency, the University of Minnesota (UM) Entrance-level Proficiency Tests were used to test listening, reading, and writing progress). Results showed that by the end of French 101 there was no significant difference between the two classes over all five measures: listening, grammar, reading, writing, and speaking. However, at the time of the final French 102 test, the Experimental Group significantly scored higher than the Control Group on the UM listening test and had a tendency to perform better than the Control Group on the UM writing test. Apparently the effect of the video program did not occur until the end of the study, which was at the end of the second semester. In other words, positive effects were not immediate.

Weyers (1999) examined the effect of an authentic video in L2 teaching. The study compared two intact classes of L1 English second semester university learners at the University of New Mexico learning Spanish as a foreign language. The classes met daily for 60 minutes, for a total of 8 weeks. The control group (n = 17) followed the established curriculum which followed the tenets of CLT and the Natural Approach. In this curriculum, students took lessons from six chapters (Chapters 6-12) of the textbook *Dos mundos* (Terrell, Andrade, Egasse, & Mufioz, 1990) and were expected to study key grammatical structures at home; the principal focus of class time was on communicative activities that incorporate the vocabulary and grammatical information covered. The experimental group (n = 20) followed the same curriculum, and watched two episodes per week of the Spanish-speaking television drama *Maria Mercedes* (Pimstein, 1992). They watched each episode in class, with the instructor present. The viewing consumed approximately 45 minutes of the 60-minute class period. The post listening and speaking tests showed that there was significant improvement in confidence in speech, significant increase in listening skills, and significant increase in communicative competence in favor of the experimental group learners. This study suggested that the use of authentic input from TV soap operas together with communicative activities and textbooks may benefit L2 learners more than just communicative activities and textbooks alone. The study also indicated that L2 learners may develop their L2 through engaging in the story line of the drama.

With the wide-spread availability of DVDs, feature movies have begun to be used in language classrooms. A qualitative study on the use of full-length English movies in EFL classrooms showed a positive effect on fluency and the use of formulaic chunks in L2 development. Qiang, Hai and Wolf (2007) used twenty-five English movies in their English for Specific Purposes course for Chinese university students majoring in Business, Business English, and English. The researchers observed that English-language movies helped language learners "improve their pronunciation and intonation, pick up idiomatic use of words and phrases, assimilate English sentence structure, and become acquainted with the target culture which will prepare them for studying and living abroad or international communication at home" (Qiang et al., 2007: 42). The students interviewed gave positive anecdotal feedback to the teaching approach, expressing their gradual development of fluency in English. They felt that they could say directly in English what they thought rather than translate their thoughts from Chinese into English. Qiang et al. (2007) suggest that teachers "encourage learners to pay attention to collocations and chunks of language while watching movies, repeating in their minds expressions in current use and at the very least 'parroting' the words they can understand but cannot [yet] use" (Qiang et al., 2007: 42). Although the findings and implications were based on observation, English spoken movies seem to work well as chunk input of the target language, helping learners notice and develop L2 conventionalized ways of saying things.

With regards to the use of subtitles, studies have shown different findings. Markham, Peter, & McCarthy (2001) found benefits of captions in the mother tongue, and then captions in the target language in listening comprehension of intermediate-level English L1 students of Spanish over the no-captions mode. They suggest that a cycle of repeated viewing, beginning with L1 captions, then with L2 captions, and eventually with no captions would benefit learners in understanding a video. However, Sydorenko (2010) found that the addition of target language captions to a target language video input could improve only word form recognition and meaning acquisition, but detracted from aural word recognition. Additionally, she found that learners pay most attention to the target language captions, followed by video and audio. She also found that most acquisition was achieved by association between words and visual images. We can see that the use of subtitles benefit L2 learning. However, the current study focused on the spoken input. Therefore, drawing from Sydorendo's study finding, it was decided that the movie scenes would be presented to participants in a way that subtitles came after the learners were exposed to audio, and images and subtitles were treated simply as a "bonus" for the learners, rather than the focus of the DUB lesson. This was to make sure participants paid attention primarily to spoken input – one that they will hear in real life communicative situations.

It has been shown that the use of visual media in L2 instruction has positive effects. However, in the case of feature movies, it could be the case that they could be perceived as difficult for low-proficiency learners to understand because of the natural rate of speech used in the films and thus tend to be used for more advanced students, as seen in Qiang et al. (2007) whose participants were English majors and/or English for Specific Purposes students. However, based on their experience of using the film *What about Bob?* to teach listening and speaking strategies to adult beginners ESOL learners, Ishihara and Chi (2004) argued that

feature movies were definitely suitable for adult beginners as well. According to these researchers, beginning-level EFL learners will enhance their language learning if there is assistance with vocabulary and repeated viewing of the movie.

2.4.4 The effect of delayed output

A DUB approach to second language learning implies that input is more important than output especially at the earlier stages of L2 learning (Verspoor et al., 2012). Thus, delayed output can be seen as a necessity in second language teaching when learners are not ready to produce the language they are learning.

Postovsky (1974) investigated the effect of delayed output. In his study, participants were L1 English military personnel who were between 18 – 27 years old and had no prior knowledge of the Russian language. Volunteering to learn Russian as an L2, they were randomly put in one of the two conditions. Control group participants (n = 61) were given Russian lessons in listening, reading, writing, and grammar. They had oral practice right from the start. Experimental group participants (n = 61) were given the same lessons, but speaking was postponed for the first four weeks of the program. At Week 6 and Week 12 of the program, both groups took a Michigan Language Aptitude Test-similar comprehensive test consisting of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The results showed that the experimental group significantly outscored the control group on the Week 6 test on speaking, reading, and writing and on the Week 12 test on listening. This indicated that a delay on speaking in the initial stages of learning did not harm learners' acquisition of the L2. Instead, it fostered the acquisition of the target language. With no intention to minimize the importance of oral practice in a language training program, Postovsky (1974) suggested that it was better for L2 language learners to delay their oral production and focus intensively on receptive skills (listening and reading) in their early stages of learning. Following the effectiveness of postponing output, the current study did not focus on oral production in the experimental group throughout the time of the study. Instead, the group received substantial authentic input and input repetition.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has presented what a DUB approach to second language teaching may look like. The approach, based on DST and UBL perspectives, sees language as an array of conventionalized units, some of which are specific and others more schematic. UBL holds that the main force in language development is frequency of exposure, preferably in socially and culturally meaningful usage events. A DST perspective suggests that language development is not linear and that different sub-systems in the language may develop at different rates and at different times. It also holds that iteration (which is related to frequency of exposure) is an important aspect of development. A number of previous studies which take a DUB perspective have been carried out, showing that L2 learning is a non-linear process and develops on the account of frequent exposure to the target language in a communicative, meaningful context.

Based on the DUB theoretical grounds and these DUB-inspired empirical studies, it was suggested in the chapter that a movie approach could help meet the needs of the students by providing frequent exposure of authentic language. Furthermore, we saw that although there have been quite a number of studies on L2 development (learning) with a DUB perspective, there have not been any empirical studies on a DUB approach to second language teaching. However, the chapter was able to document some of previous studies that are in line with the teaching strand of a DUB approach. Having some of the important aspects of a DUB teaching approach such as the use of spoken authentic input, the use of socially and culturally appropriate usage events as language input, and the use of delayed speaking, these studies can be seen to exhibit certain tenets of a DUB approach, and that this sort of approach benefits learners both linguistically and psychologically (in that they are more confident with the language).

Chapter 3
The Study

Taking a dynamic usage-based (DUB) perspective, which combines insights from Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) and usage-based linguistics, this study looked at how EFL Vietnamese university students developed their L2 English over time in high-input conditions with exposure to and repetition of authentic language. The assumption was that constructions at all levels were stored as a whole and would enhance fluency (the ease with which constructions are retrieved from memory). With more fluency, learners were expected to be more confident and willing to communicate in English.

3.1 Aims

The general purpose of the current study was to investigate the effectiveness of a DUB program in teaching English as a foreign language. The effectiveness was measured by the learners' increase in general proficiency, in the use of chunks, in willingness to communicate in English, and in self-confidence with English.

3.2 Research questions

Four research questions were framed to investigate the research aim.

1. Do low-proficiency EFL learners develop language proficiency better when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
2. Do low-proficiency EFL learners pick up more formulaic chunks when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
3. Do low-proficiency EFL learners become more willing to communicate in English when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?
4. Do low-proficiency EFL learners become more confident with using English when they are exposed to a high-input learning approach compared to the current communicative approach?

3.3 Design

The present research was a quasi-experimental longitudinal quantitative study. Because the study was conducted in intact classrooms, neither random selection nor random assignment of participants was possible. There was a control and an experimental group. The Control Group

consisted of three intact university-level classes and the Experimental Group consisted of four similar classes. Both groups took a General English course. The difference was that the Control Group used the standard textbook entitled *Learning Breakthrough 1* which was a task-based English textbook, and the Experimental Group learnt English with two popular English-spoken movies. In addition to the student participants, four EFL university teachers took part in the study as class teachers. Ideally, each teacher was set up to teach classes of both conditions. However, observance of practicalities that actual classroom research entails prevented this. Ultimately two teachers taught both control and experimental classes, another teacher taught one control class only, and the remaining teacher taught one experimental class only.

The research investigated the differences of the two groups in receptive general English proficiency, writing, speaking, self-assessment of language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), chunks, willingness to communicate (WTC), and self- confidence (SC). Several statistical tests were performed to see if the instruments were reliable and if the data was normally distributed. As the pre-test showed differences between the control and experimental group participants, both independent Samples t-Tests and analyses of covariance were run.

To measure the effect of condition, four different analyses were performed and there were twelve measurements in each analysis. The four analyses involved the groups as a whole (Analysis 1), classes only of teachers that taught both conditions (Analysis 2), control classes only (Analysis 3), and experimental classes only (Analysis 4). The independent variable was condition, either control or experimental.

The dependent variables were the gain scores (unless otherwise indicated) of twelve variables: receptive general English proficiency, writing (x 2; that is, the writing gain score 1 (post-writing scores minus pre-writing scores), and the writing gain score 2 (exam-writing scores minus pre-writing scores)), speaking, self-reported listening, self-reported speaking, self-reported reading, self-reported writing, chunks (x 2; that is the post-chunk and the exam-chunk), WTC, and SC. A gain score was defined as the post-test score minus the pre-test score.

3.4 Context

The study took place in the second semester of the academic year 2010-2011 at Can Tho University (CTU), a large public university in the South-west of Vietnam. Offering a variety of academic programs (agriculture, aqua-culture and husbandry, mechanics, hydraulics, civil engineering, economics, high school teacher education, elementary teacher education informatics, law, business administration, finance, foreign trade, basic sciences, biology technology, chemistry technology, electronics, environmental sciences, environmental technology, and humanities), CTU is considered a multi-disciplined university. As the university grows to be a prestigious university with quality teaching and international academic cooperation, CTU has also been offering a few English-medium undergraduate curricula and an increasing number of Master's and Doctoral programs.

The great majority of CTU students come from small towns and villages of the Mekong Delta – the rice belt of the country – and it has been noticed that these small-town students are hard-working and intelligent students (in order to be admitted to Can Tho University, the

students had to pass an extremely competitive high-stake national university entrance examination). Their seemingly weak point, however, is that their initial level of English proficiency is quite low. They enter university with little command of English vocabulary and structures and their communicative skills in the English language are minimal. Fortunately, this weakness has been realized and put on the top agendas of the University Board.

In recent years, Can Tho University has carried out gradual steps to help foster the students' communicative skills in English. As a preparatory step, the university purchased 1000 new computers for Internet-accessed computer rooms; installed a WIFI system on campus; and facilitated an Audio-Visual room at the university library where students have access to the Internet and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) materials such as textbooks, CDs and videos. As a fundamental step, the university carried out two large-scale English-language specific activities: the implementation of a newly-designed CLT task-based English curriculum and the administration of TOEIC (Tests of English for International Communication) as an English language placement test.

Realizing that commercial English textbooks that had been in use failed to help the students learn English because they lacked contents that are familiar to CTU learners, the University Board has recently had a series of EFL textbooks designed specifically for CTU students by a team of the university's senior EFL teachers. The series has three student textbooks: *Learning Breakthrough 1, Learning Breakthrough 2, and Learning Breakthrough 3*[2]. As depicted on the cover of the course-books which have graphic pictures of CTU buildings and CTU students on campus, much of the content of the new textbooks concerns life on the CTU campus, in the CTU dormitory, the hopes and dreams of CTU students, Vietnamese culture, and Mekong Delta-related issues such as environmental pollution. Developed with a CLT task-based approach in mind, the new curriculum offers numerous small group and pair work activities. Each student textbook (designed in 2008) is accompanied by a workbook (designed in 2009) and two accompanying audio CDs (recorded in 2008). The textbooks were revised after two years of pilot study and were published by Can Tho University's Publishing House in April 2010. The series were used university-wide.

In addition to using the newly-designed CLT textbooks, the university has been administering the standardized test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) as an English placement test, making sure that language learners are placed in the right level of class. Near the end of their first semester, all freshman students take this test. The result of the test, which is the scores for listening and reading, is used to place them in a level-appropriate General English course or to exempt them from taking the General English courses. Accordingly, students scoring 200 points or less on the TOEIC test will have to take three General English courses during their first two years of higher education, namely General English 1 (four credits), General English 2 (three credits), and General English 3 (three credits). Those students with a score between 205 and 250 points are exempted from General English 1.

[2] At the time the textbooks were designed in 2008, the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) was unknown to the university and the designers. In retrospect, it may be estimated that the level of the textbooks ranges between the CEFR A1 and B1.1 levels.

Those with a score between 255 and 395 points are exempted from General English 1 and 2. Those with 400 points or larger are exempted from all three General English courses. At the time of the research, approximately 2000 first year students were taking General English 1 and the corresponding textbook they used for the course was *Learning Breakthrough 1*.

It is evident that CTU has had a strong commitment to improving the English skills of the students. Teaching facilities are; however, still an issue at CTU. Although the university has tried to supply classrooms with up-to-date teaching facilities such as projectors, large-screen TVs, sound systems, and the Internet, most classrooms are still equipped with only blackboards, fans, lights, and a white screen painted on the wall. In the current study, participants studied in the latter kind of classroom. This meant that when it was time to teach listening to the control groups the teachers carried a university cassette player or their own computer laptop together with a speaker to class. For the experimental classes, which taught English with movie scenes, the researcher carried a projector, a computer laptop, a speaker, and extension wires to class for instructional purposes. As it would take time for the teacher of the experimental classes to start up these facilities, the researcher made sure the facilities were ready for use before the teacher of the experimental classes came to class. In regard to classroom setting, tables and chairs were arranged in a traditional format where all the students were sitting in rows facing the blackboard and the teacher.

3.5 Participants

3.5.1 Learner participants

A total of 169 Can Tho University students participated in the study. This number was later reduced to 163 due to incomplete data. Most participants were first-year students, aged between 18-19 years. Twenty-six participants were second-year students, aged between 19-20 years. The participants' majors were non-language-related and because their fields of study were generally male-dominated, there were more males than females. Their L1 was Vietnamese and they had learnt English as a foreign language at secondary school for seven consecutive years (Grades 6 – 12) by the time of the study. However, their English proficiency was still limited. Their TOEIC listening and reading scores (between 85-200 points out of a maximum of 990) suggested that they were language learners at Level A1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) or at a Novice level of language proficiency according to the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Their contact with English outside class was also very limited. Self-reports indicated that on average 76 % of their English was learnt at school and 24% outside school.

Based on their TOEIC scores, which were 200 points or lower, participants were enrolled in a *General English 1* course. They formed seven intact classes and were not aware of the special nature of the experimental treatment when they self-registered for the course. These classes were grouped into three control and four experimental classes as follows: teachers assigned with two *General English 1* classes taught the class they met first as an experimental class and the other as a control class. There were 74 control participants (71 males, 3 females)

and 95 experimental ones (72 males, 23 females). All the classes were expected to start with more or less the same initial English proficiency because of their TOEIC scores; however, the pre-test scores were also used to compare initial proficiency between groups and classes (see section 5.1). A sense of friendliness and solidarity could be felt in each of the classes because many students had known each other as classmates in previous courses. This was deemed beneficial for the learning environment. Table 3.1 describes participant demographics. Table 3.2 describes participants' majors and years.

There were two reasons why non-English major students were recruited over English major students for the current study. First, they were chosen in order to ensure that the English input students received was mainly in the classroom. Non-English major students in general tended to spend little time on English contact outside the classroom because English was not their major and was difficult for them. Second, non-English major students were large in numbers. If a new teaching method worked, it would benefit a large number of learners.

In addition, in this current study, *General English 1* students were recruited over those of the *General English 2* and *General English 3* courses. This was because (1) learners at a lower level were assumed to be more suitable for a teaching method that did not require early production of the language, and (2) the *General English 1* course was covered in the highest number of credits (4 credits). Therefore, *General English 1* students would have the most class time for input exposure.

Table 3.1: Participant Demographics

Class	Control		Experimental		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
C1	25	2			27
C2	21	0			21
C3	25	1			26
E1			19	7	26
E2			25	5	30
E3			14	0	14
E4			14	11	25
Total	71	3	72	23	169

Note. C = Control class; E = Experimental class

Table 3.2: Participants' Majors and Years

Class	Major	Year
C1	Physical education	1st year
C2	Informatics	1st year
C3	Civil engineering	2nd year
E1	Environment science, environment technology	1st year
E2	Civil engineering, chemistry technology	1st year
E3	Civil engineering, mechanics	1st year
E4	Law	1st year

Note. C = Control class; E = Experimental class

3.5.2 Teacher participants

Four female Can Tho University EFL teachers between 30 and 56 years of age took part in the study (henceforth, Instructors A, B, C, and D). All instructors were trained to teach English as a foreign language. Their teaching experience ranged from eight to thirty years. Three teachers had spent approximately two or three years in an English-speaking country (Australia or the United States) completing their Master's degree, so they had been exposed to a great deal of authentic input. One teacher never studied abroad. However, she completed a Master's program entirely taught in English by Australian academics. Therefore, this teacher was also exposed to a lot of authentic input. In a sense, all the four participating instructors were quite comparable in terms of English teaching experience and exposure to authentic English. Table 3.3 describes instructor demographics.

Table 3.3: Instructor Demographics

Instructor	Age	Years of teaching	Country of graduate studies/completion year
A	38	16	The United States (2006)
B	30	8	Australia (2007)
C	56	32	The United States (2004)
D	40	18	Vietnam (2005)

Note. Instructor A = the researcher

Originally, the study had been designed for three teachers (Instructors A, B, and C). Each teacher had been expected to teach two General English 1 classes- one as a control and the other as an experimental class- with each class consisting of approximately 50 students (a normal class size at the time of the study). However, due to class cancellations and actual class sizes, changes had to be made to raise the number of participants. As shown in Table 3.4, Instructor D was added and taught one control class. Instructor C taught one experimental class. Instructor B was responsible for two experimental classes and one control class. Instructor A was in charge of one control and one experimental class.

Table 3.4: Instructors and Number of Their Class(es)

Instructor	Class		Total
	Control	Experimental	
A	C1	E1	2
B	C2	E2 & E4	3
C	-	E3	1
D	C3	-	1
Total	3	4	7

Because the investigated participants belonged to different classes with their own time schedule, it was not feasible to randomize the subjects. However, the assignment of the control and experimental classes was established purely objectively and out of necessity.

On the objectivity front, Instructors A and B, who initially had two classes, started the semester by teaching the class they met first as an experimental class and the one second as a control class. On the necessity front, classes were assigned to be control or experimental group participants as there were no other alternatives. Instructor C had expected to teach two General English 1 classes. Unfortunately, only one of her two classes remained after class cancellations. Because Instructor C had been trained to teach with movie clips by the researcher prior to the study, the decision was made to teach her remaining *General English 1* class as an experimental class out of necessity. In Week 2 of the semester, two additional classes were recruited to increase the number of participants. Class C3 was recruited as a control class because its instructor (Instructor D) had not been involved in the movie clip training. This class was added to raise the number of control group participants. Class E4 was recruited as an experimental class in order to raise the number of experimental group participants. It was taught by Instructor B for scheduling reasons.

It should be noted that although Class C3 and Class E4 had started the *General English 1* program one week before taking part in the current study, this would not be a major factor for any difference in initial scores of the classes. This was because these students had taken only one (for Class C3) or two class sessions (for Class E4), a learning time too little to possibly make a great effect.

3.6 Treatment

Although control and experimental classes received the same amount of course time, which was sixty class hours (a class hour equals 50 minutes) and they both saved the last five hours of the program for oral examination, the two treatment conditions received different teaching materials and instructional approaches.

3.6.1 Control classes

Control classes received standard instruction. Standard instruction refers to the use of the standard textbook *Learning Breakthrough 1* (Bui et al., 2010) which was used university-wide by all *General English 1* classes. This course book consisted of nine units covering informal topics such as school, free time activities, and hopes and dreams (see Appendix B for the map of the textbook). Each unit was comprised of Reading, Grammar, Listening-Speaking, and Writing and was expected to be covered in six periods. Depending on whether subjects had four or five periods of instruction a week, it took 12 or 15 weeks respectively (see Table 3.5). Excluding testing sessions, Classes C1 and C2 attended 28 textbook sessions. Class C3 attended 22 textbook sessions.

Designed with a task-based perspective, the skill sections had a pre-skill, while-skill, post-skill format, for example, pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading (see Appendix C for a task-based unit sample). The grammar section was structured in a Presentation-Practice-Production format. Classroom activities allowed for multiple pair/group work. Teacher's talk was reportedly 50% in English and 50% in Vietnamese. Conversations on the audio CDs used in class were spoken at a low speed by non-native, L1-Vietnamese and/or native EFL teachers. After each unit, students were assigned to write a paragraph. The assigned writing topic was similar to the topic of the written sample in the respective unit. For example, the title of the written sample in Unit 5 was *My New Friend* and the assignment was "Write a paragraph about your new friend."

Control group students were prepared for the final examination as part of the curriculum. One month before the final examination, they were given a list of six speaking topics to practice for the exam, with a note indicating that these speaking topics could be used as writing topics for the examination. As a matter of fact, two of the six speaking topics (topics 2 and 5) were used in the final examination for the writing test. The speaking topics sent by the Department of Foreign Languages were: *Describe Campus II of Can Tho University. Which place do you like best? Why? Describe your learning style. How do students of CTU study? Describe students' life in CTU. How do you live in Can Tho? Tell some activities of CTU students that you know. What activity in CTU do you like best? Why? How do students in CTU spend their free-time? What do you often do in your free-time? How to become a good student? What should you do to be a successful student?*

The learners were also aware of the oral examination procedure beforehand. Each student was expected to pair with another student of his or her choice for the examination. The examination would proceed in three steps: (1) self-introduction, (2) conversation, and (3) follow-up questions. In the self-introduction part, students were expected to introduce themselves (name, age, hometown, field of study, and family). The teacher might have a few questions along the way to ask for clarification or to motivate the student to talk. In the conversation part, students were to ask and answer each other's questions related to one of the six speaking topics that they had obtained by drawing a slot at the beginning of the speaking examination. In the follow-up questions part, the teacher asked a few more questions that were related to the six pre-announced speaking topics. Table 3.5 shows the number of hours per class session and per week of the control classes.

Table 3.5: Number of Hours per Session and per Week of Control Classes

Class	Number of sessions a week	Number of hours a week	Number of weeks	Weeks
C1	2	5	12	1234--78901234---[3]
C2	2	5	12	1234--78901234---
C3	2	4	15	1234--78901234567

3.6.2 Experimental classes

Experimental classes received movie instruction. Movie instruction refers to the use of two popular movies – *A Cinderella Story* (2004, 95 minutes) and *Bridge to Terabithia* (2007, 95 minutes). Due to a lack of time, only the first movie *A Cinderella Story* was used extensively for teaching. Movie lessons were presented in a power point format and were meant for meaning-based, implicit learning. Forms at all levels (sounds, morphemes, words, phrases, and clauses) were heard and seen repeatedly, but there was no focus on form in the traditional sense: i.e., there was no focus on grammar rules. However, chunks or multi-words were explicitly taught – at the beginning of the course, students were made aware of chunks in English and chunks in a movie scene were now and then underlined to raise learners' awareness of these multi-word units.

Because of the DUB perspective in which frequency of exposure is important, two-minute movie segments were shown repeatedly, with three to four segments shown per class session. Depending on the amount of language, discussing one segment would take about 15 minutes. The goal was to help students understand the scene as a whole and understand each utterance. To help commit the language to memory, the aim was to "revisit" the utterances about eight times per session. There were seven steps in which the teacher, with the help of the text on the power point sheets, scaffolded to ensure full understanding. Although the language of instruction was supposed to be almost exclusively English, the teachers used the mother tongue when they thought the learners needed help to understand the story line. In the end, it was estimated that teacher's talk was like in the control classes, about 50% in English and 50% in Vietnamese.

Each movie segment was treated as follows in about 7-8 steps.

Step 1. Students were presented with a few lexical items, chunks, or expressions that would occur in the scene. They were meant to familiarize the students with these items and at the same time prepare the learners a bit for what the scene

[3] The numbers represent the weeks of the semester in which participants took the General English 1 classes. Number 1 represents Week 1 and so forth. However, number 0 represents Week 10. Therefore, number 1 after number 0 means Week 11, not Week 1, and so forth. Each dotted line represents a week. The first two dotted lines represent a two-week Tết break. The three subsequent dotted lines represent the three weeks in which participants postponed all classes for an intensive National Defense program.

was about. These items were explained with the help of visual images, definitions, and sometimes L1 translations.

Step 2. Students watched the movie segment without subtitles and no specific directions (first exposure). This way they could focus on the entire scene and get the gist of what was happening.

Step 3. The teacher asked two general content questions such as "Do you think the movie is about a real story or a fairy tale?" and "Who do you think is the main character in the movie?" eliciting a response such as "The movie is about a real story and the little girl is the main character." These questions were not to test students, but to give the teacher an idea of whether the students understood the general content and whether elaboration was necessary.

Step 4. Students watched the movie segment again (second exposure) and were asked to pay attention to what the characters said.

Step 5. Students were shown the actual text of the movie segment on a power point sheet (third exposure), and the teacher read aloud the lines (fourth exposure). The purpose was to give the students the opportunity to process the language in a different mode (written) and at a slower pace (as pronounced by the teacher). Where needed or interesting, the teacher elaborated to explain exactly what the characters meant by saying what they said and, where applicable, why. Visuals were included where appropriate. For example, a picture of a baseball field was included to explain the expression "Never let the fear of striking out keep you from playing the game". Students were given handouts of the text so that they could take notes when necessary.

Step 6. Students watched the movie segment for the third time (fifth exposure). The purpose was to expose the learners to the language again and see if they could actually understand all the utterances as pronounced by the actors.

Step 7. Students were shown the text of the movie segment again (sixth exposure) and individual students were asked to read aloud a line (seventh exposure). The purpose of this step was to give students an opportunity to be exposed to the text again and try saying the sentences the way actors did, thereby practicing pronunciation and intonation. No deliberate corrections were given when the students mispronounced the words. Affective compliments were given to keep learners motivated.

Step 8. For a change of pace, there would be an activity after two or three segments had been shown. Most of the times, the students were asked to write about the movie or a personal topic. Other times, they acted out a movie scene (suggested by the instructor or of their own choice) in pairs. No linguistic feedback was given to students' spoken and written performance, ensuring completely free use of language for the learners. Instead, affective compliments were given to keep learners motivated.

The first movie – *A Cinderella Story* – was used extensively for teaching. It was watched in short segments with carefully-designed PowerPoint presentations (PPT) (see Appendix D for a DUB unit sample), with class activities and handouts given. Ten minutes at the end of each class session was designated for writing activities. Participants wrote about a given topic (e.g., Write about your favorite/least favorite character in the movie, write a summary of a movie scene you have watched today, or write about your plan for Tết (Vietnamese Lunar New Year's Day), or in a few cases, about anything that came to their mind. After half the movie had been shown, participants were shown the whole half in its entirety. After each movie session, the PPT lesson and respective movie segments were uploaded on the E-learning system for learners to review as homework.

During three remaining class meetings at the end of the program, the second movie *Bridge to Terabithia* was shown in larger parts with explanations given here and there, but without any specific class activities and handouts given. Only Class E1 had enough time to complete watching the second movie (within three sessions). The other experimental classes could finish only half of the movie because of a lack of time.

Depending on whether subjects had four or five periods of instruction a week, it took 12 or 15 weeks to finish the program, respectively (see Table 3.6). Excluding testing time, Classes E1 and E3 attended 26 movie sessions. Classes E2 and E4 attended 20 movies sessions. Table 3.6 shows the number of hours per class session and per week of the experimental classes.

Table 3.6: Number of Hours per Session and per Week of Experimental Classes

Class	Number of sessions a week	Number of hours a week	Number of weeks	Weeks
E1	2	4	15	1234--78901234567[4]
E2	2	5	12	1234--78901---567
E3	2	4	15	1234--78901234567
E4	2	5	12	1234--78901234

To further raise the learners' awareness of formulaic language, two exercises were given in class during the middle of the course when participants were familiar with the idea of chunks in English. In Exercise 1, students were given a hand-out of two short informal written texts (below, without the underlining) and were asked to read them over and indicate which paragraph was better and why. After the students and the instructor had pointed out some possible reasons together, agreeing that one of the main factors making Text Learner B sound better was the use of chunks, the students were asked to underline the word combinations that they considered chunks in both samples. Then the instructor went through the texts with the

[4] See footnote 3.

whole class, indicating which combinations of words could be considered as chunks (underlined words in the texts).

> Learner A:
> I think the rules at home by my are most fair. Only the rules that you must be at the good time at home. If I don't be at home at the good time then they are already angry. If I am at three o'clock out then I must be home before half past three. That is not fine. I also have to start so soon as possible at my homework and I may not do my learning work in the not very interesting of a movie. They are very worried about the school.
>
> Learner B:
> That is a really difficult question. I do know I would like to travel, so I can see a lot of the world. So I'm going to learn many languages so I can work in a foreign country…. I also want a job that pays well…. Actually I don't know exactly what kind of job I would like to have. I have years enough to find out what I really want in life. The only thing I know for sure is that I want to travel.

In Exercise 2, participants were asked to read over 21 similar writing pieces and indicate the worst and the best texts, in their opinion. This time they read the texts on the computer screen in a computer room. To help ease the cognitive load for the students, the texts had been arranged in an order of quality (the first texts being very short and poorer; the last texts being longer and better). In addition, the instructor informed participants of the nature of the texts before the task to raise their interest: The texts were written by L1 Dutch seventh graders and were about everyday topics such as my best/worst holiday ever. After reading, participants informally voted for the worst (Texts 1 & 2) and the best texts (Text 19). They were then told to read Text 19 one more time, underlining word combinations they considered chunks. After that, the instructor went through Text 19 with the entire class, underlining word combinations she considered chunks. The purpose of these exercises was to raise chunk awareness; therefore, no correction was given.

Experimental group students were partially prepared for the final examination. At the request of one E2 participant who was concerned about the grammar part of the final examination, a few days before the examination, the researcher sent experimental group students a review sheet as final examination preparation materials (See Appendix E). The sheet included twenty-two interview questions that might be asked at the oral examination (the post-interview), a short list of single words and chunks that appeared in the movies, and a summary chart of the grammatical points that were taught in the control condition (the simple present tense, be going to, the simple past tense, and the use of modal verbs may and should). However, no writing topics were suggested in the review sheet. Table 3.7 shows the dates the posttests and the final examination took place.

Table 3.7: Dates of Posttest, Post-interview, and Examination

Class	Post-test	Post-interview	Examination
C1	19/4	8/5	8/5
C2	7/4	7/5	8/5
C3	6/5	6/5	8/5
E1	27/4	4/5	8/5
E2	4/5	4/5	8/5
E3	23/4	10/5	8/5
E4	11/4	9/5	8/5

3.7 Instruments

The study used three research instruments: a General English Proficiency test, a Willingness to Communicate and Self-confidence (WTC-SC) questionnaire, and a Language exposure questionnaire. All of them were to be administered at the beginning of the study as pretests and at the end of the study as posttests. The first two instruments were piloted before use by two trained research assistants. The third one did not need piloting because it had already been used in a previous study. It is noted that none of the subjects in the pilot study were participants in the present study. These instruments of data collection will be explained in more detail in the corresponding sections below.

3.7.1 The General English Proficiency test

3.7.1.1 The sources of the test

A General English Proficiency (GEP) test was developed on the basis of four sources: De Thi Tot Nghiep Cap III Mon Tieng Anh Nam 2008 (the 2008 High School Graduation English Test), KET (the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations Key English Test), the 2007 Dutch Examen VMBO-BB Test, and the Listen A Minute website. Following are details of each of the sources.

The 2008 High School Graduation English Test was a Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training's multiple-choice English test administered nation-wide for senior high school students to take to graduate from high school. It was used in this study because all participants were familiar with the instruction and format of the test. The reason why the 2008 High School Graduation English Test was used was to avoid possible test effects; the majority of the participants in this study graduated from high school in 2009 and had presumably taken the 2009 High School Graduation English Test, and were assumed to have not used the 2008 version to practice.

The KET is a basic level English language test administered by the University of Cambridge. It is meant for learners of English with level A2 in proficiency, one that participants in the current study were expected to attain after their General English 1 program.

Thus, the General English Proficiency Test contained some test items from the KET so that the posttest would be less easy for participants.

A Dutch Examen VMBO-BB test is an English reading test which Dutch VMBO high school students take to graduate from high school. The VMBO students do not prepare for higher education, so the VMBO-BB test is generally aimed at A2-level proficiency. This level is appropriate for participants in this study.

The ListenAMinute.com website was developed by Sean Banville, a native speaker of English and is downloadable for educational purposes. It offers free-of-charge one-minute audio files read by a native speaker of English with a normal speed. The recordings are about general topics such as food, books, and love. The website also provides gap-filling listening exercises for each topic. The tape-script and the listening exercise in the General English Proficiency Test of this current study were downloaded from this website.

3.7.1.2 The components of the test

As suggested by R. Ellis (2005: 42) that in assessing learners' L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production, the GEP test contained both a receptive GEP test and a productive GEP test. The receptive GEP test consisted of nine parts (Table 3.8), encompassing components of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, reading, cloze, dialogue matching, and listening. Parts 2 – 4 were adapted from the 2008 Vietnamese National High School Graduation English Test. Parts 1, 7 and 8 were duplicated from the KET (cf. UCLES, 2004). Part 6 stemmed from the 2007 Dutch Examen VMBO-BB test. Part 9 came from the Listen A Minute website. There were 49 test items. It was estimated that the receptive GEP test was completed within 40 minutes.

Table 3.8: Parts of Receptive General English Proficiency Test and Number of Items

Test part	Test component	Number of items
1	Vocabulary	5
2	Grammar	5
3	Vocabulary	5
4	Phonetics	5
5	Grammar	5
6	Reading comprehension	1
7	Cloze	10
8	Conversation matching	5
9	Listening and filling in the blank	8
Total		49

The productive GEP test contained components of writing and speaking. This test was used to obtain real language from participants. The writing test was included in the General English Proficiency Test as Part 10 and was administered with the receptive GEP test in one go. The

topics from which participants were to choose to write about were *My Best Friend, My Best Trip, My Goals and Dreams for the Future,* and *Things about My Hometown*. No minimum length or word constraints were set and participants were encouraged to write as much as they could. Also, dictionaries or teacher help were not provided. It was estimated that the writing test was completed within 30 minutes.

The composition topics were selected because of the following reasons: (1) The topics imposed little or no constraints as to the type of language and content to be used by the participants. Instead, the free nature of the writing task allowed students to deploy as much language knowledge in English as possible. Differences between participants in proficiency were ruled out, since the topics did not especially direct learners to use specific grammatical or particular lexical items, (2) It was guaranteed that participants would have something to write about, and (3) Participants have more than one choice to write about.

The speaking test was conducted on a separate day. Interview questions were of simple everyday topics such as self-introduction, favorite teachers/subjects/movies, and future plans. The test slightly adapted the interviewing techniques of the Center for Applied Linguistics Student Oral Proficiency Assessment (SOPA) (Thompson, Boyson, & Rhodes, 2009), which allows for asking subsequent questions based on interviewees' responses and for winding down with easier questions if interviewees are not capable of answering a certain question. With their consent, participants were videotaped during their interviews. An interview could take seven to ten minutes.

The writing and speaking scores were not included in the general proficiency; they were each to be treated separately. There were practical reasons for this decision. For speaking, the reason was that only 71 participants attended the interview at the beginning of the study. Therefore, it was a better idea to treat the speaking data separately. For writing, the reason was that the writing score (the mean of the six raters for the student compositions) would have almost no effect on the total score of general proficiency that consisted of 49 items (later coded into 63 items). If writing scores were included in the general proficiency score, all significant differences for writing would be clouded by the other items and valuable information might be lost. Therefore, the writing data were also to be treated separately.

The listening section of the test was repeated three times (more than once) when administered. This was first to conform to the regular practice of testing at Can Tho University, and second to satisfy one practical consideration (Buck, 2001: 170-172). Because the listening test was conducted in normal classrooms where windows and doors were not sound-free, background noise may disturb the concentration of participants. Therefore, three-time listening was believed to reduce any possible psychological stress they might undergo (Chang & Read, 2006).

3.7.1.3 The reliability, validity, and appropriateness of the test

The General English Proficiency test was reliable, valid, and level-appropriate. Reliability refers to the consistency of the measurement of the test scores. To ensure reliability, the General English Proficiency test was piloted three times. First, it was piloted on sixteen

international students in Groningen, the Netherlands (including three native speakers of English, three Vietnamese, nine Spaniards, and one Portuguese). The purpose of this initial pilot was to check for clarity of instruction, time consumed, test takers' attitude towards the content of the test, levels of difficulty, and authentic language. It took the test takers between 18 and 35 minutes to finish the test (the writing task was not required). Based on the response of the test takers, the instruction of the test was clear and the content of the test was age-appropriate. Some items of the test were revised. With regard to the level of difficulty, the reading passage was replaced by a more challenging one and a pronunciation item was replaced with an easier one. Some minor changes in language were made. For the General English Proficiency test, see Appendix F. For the original and revised items of the test, see Appendix G.

Second, the revised test was piloted on a class of 42 second year students at the studied university. The reliability was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). It was observed that it took the students 60-70 minutes to finish the General English Proficiency test (including the writing test). It was worth noting that the 42 students had taken General English 2 for one month. This means that their English proficiency at the time of the pilot test was supposedly higher than that of first year students who were going to participate in the study. Finally, the revised test was piloted on the target population for reliability. It was piloted on 118 first year Business Administration students from the same university. They were recruited because they would take the General English 1 course in a different faculty. In other words, they would not attend the General English 1 classes involved in the study. The reliability was also high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$).

The General English Proficiency test was not only reliable, but also valid. Validity refers to the alignment of the definition of ability with what actually gets tested by means of the instrument (the test). Accordingly, to be able to justify a test score interpretation, we have to make sure that the scores reflect only the abilities that we want to test. In other words, the test was designed to measure only what it was set to measure (Weideman, 2009:246). As shown in the name of the test, the General English Proficiency test used in the current study was designed to measure general proficiency in English. The test comprised the testing of the four language skills intertwined with the testing of knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and phonetics. These components have been repeatedly used to assess general linguistic knowledge of EFL learners in Vietnam via the nation-wide high school graduation examination. They have also been used to assess general linguistic skill by standardized language tests such as GEPT (Taiwanese-based General English Proficiency Test), KET (the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations Key English Test), TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), and TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language).

The level of difficulty of the GEP test seemed to be appropriate for the participants in the current study. The 118 pilot participants were asked to indicate the level of difficulty of each part of the GEP test at the bottom of the test. Participants gave their indication by ticking one of the three levels "khó" (difficult), "vừa phải" (OK), and "dễ" (easy) for each part of the test. Data of seventeen subjects was disregarded due to incomplete answers, leaving 101 data sets for the statistical analysis. Data were coded as Difficult = 3, OK = 2, and Easy = 1. The results showed that most parts of the test were considered OK. Part 9 (listening) was perceived

as the most difficult part. Part 10 (writing) was considered rather difficult. However, on the whole, the level of difficulty of the GEP test was slightly above the level of "OK", at the value of 2.16 of a maximum of 3. Because the GEP test would be used as pre-test and then post-test, it was advisable that the test be targeted for a population with slightly higher English proficiency, in order to prevent possible ceiling effects. The level of 2.16 was slightly above the "OK" level. Thus, it can be seen that the GEP test was a language test suitable for both pre-test and post-test for the participants of the current study. Figure 1 displays the level of difficulty of each part of the GEP test as perceived by the pilot participants.

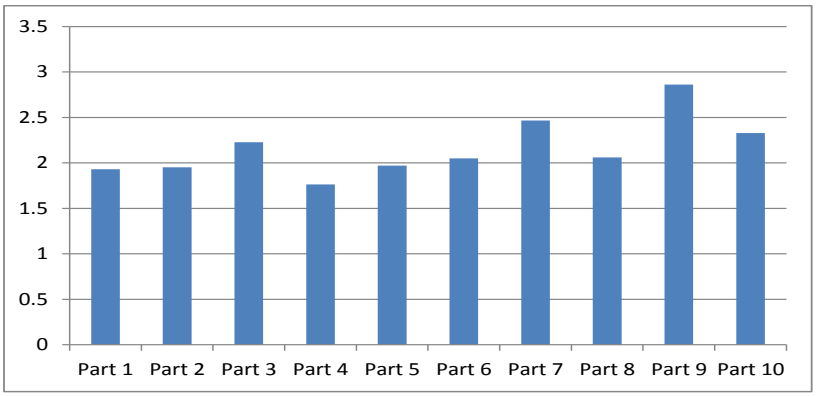

Figure 3.1: Level of difficulty of each part of the GEP test

3.7.2 The WTC-SC questionnaire

To investigate if the teaching approach would have an impact on willingness to communicate (WTC) and self-confidence (SC) of participants, a four-point Likert scale questionnaire on WTC and SC was designed, adapted from Peng (2007), who adapted it from MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod (2001). The questionnaire consisted of 35 situations. For each situation, participants were asked to indicate to what degree they were willing to communicate in English and how confident they would feel about the situation. There were 23 in-class and 12 out-of-class situations. An example of an in-class situation was *Stand up and briefly introduce yourself to everyone, when asked*. An example of an out-of-class situation was *Show directions to a foreigner when asked*. Respondents were to indicate their levels of WTC and SC by putting a circle around a scale that ranged from 1 (least willing to communicate in English / least self-confident in using English to communicate) to 4 (most willing to communicate in English / most self-confident in using English to communicate). The questionnaire was written in English.

The questionnaire was piloted twice. The primary purpose of the piloting was to ensure that the questionnaire items were comprehensible to the actual participants. In the first pilot, the questionnaire was tried out on a class of 63 first year Math-Informatics students at the studied university. It was not successful as only 12 of the 63 respondents filled out the questionnaire

completely. The questionnaire administrator reported that the respondents had failed to complete the questionnaire because the situations were described in English only. Therefore, the questionnaire was revised by adding a Vietnamese translation above each situation so that participants could understand the situations fully. The English version of the situations remained in the questionnaire to serve as an additional language source for the participants.

The revised questionnaire was piloted on another group of 63 first year Math-Informatics students and another 62 first year Business Administration students from the same university. Forty seven of 63 respondents in the first group completed the questionnaire. Fifty two of 62 respondents in the second group did. Altogether there were 125 respondents, 99 of whom gave valid answers. The total WTC and SC scores were the sum of item scales that respondents circled to indicate their level of WTC and SC, respectively. The reliability was found to be high, $\alpha = .93$ for WTC, and $\alpha = .93$ for SC. The correlation between WTC and SC was positive and significant, $r\ (97) = .58$; $p < .001$. It was observed that on average, it took the students 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. For the WTC-SC questionnaire, see Appendix H.

3.7.3 The English Language Exposure questionnaire

To gain an impression of how much English participants were exposed to outside the classroom, an English language exposure questionnaire was used for the current study. It was adopted from the one developed by Berns, de Bot, & Hasebrink (2006). The questionnaire of Berns et al. was translated into Vietnamese so that participants could understand it accurately. Slight modifications were made with regard to format to fit the questionnaire into four pages and an extra question (Question 68) was added to collect the biographical information of informants (e.g., full names, student numbers, TOEIC scores, email addresses, and phone numbers, if possible).

The questionnaire asked questions about whether or not and how often learners were exposed to English outside the classroom through media, music, family members, teachers, and friends. It also asked learners to self-assess their current proficiency level (good, fair, low, very low) in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in English (Question 66) and estimate how much (in percentage) their English knowledge was learnt at school and outside the school (Question 67). These particular questions were used for analysis. The other questions were used to give the researcher an impression of how much participants exposed themselves to English outside the class. With 68 questions written in Vietnamese, the questionnaire took 15 minutes to complete. For the English Language Exposure questionnaire, see Appendix I.

3.8 Procedure

3.8.1 Teachers

After obtaining the Can Tho University Rector's permission to conduct research at Can Tho University, the researcher sent individual electronic mails to three EFL teachers of the university inviting them to participate in the research. They were informed that they would teach two General English 1 classes: one with the existing textbook and the other with two English-medium movies. They all agreed to participate. However, one teacher had to withdraw from the research because of her over-whelming class schedules. The other two teachers (Instructors B and C) remained.

Four weeks before the semester began, the researcher met with Instructors B and C individually in three two-hour sessions, to set a common theoretical and practical ground. First, the researcher shared with the teachers the theoretical background of the experiment: usage-based linguistics and its pedagogical implications, Dynamic Systems Theory, and a lexical approach to language teaching. The first two PowerPoint (PPT) introductory lessons of the movie program were shown to the instructors to demonstrate how to introduce the idea of chunks to learners. Then, PPT lesson 1 (See Appendix D) was used to demonstrate how to teach with a dynamic usage-based perspective. That is to say, a PPT lesson followed several steps to make sure input was repeatedly exposed to learners.

In essence, the sessions were training workshops; however, they were carried out in an informal setting where the teachers could ask questions and make suggestions for the PPT lesson. This was meant to motivate teachers to develop their own ways of pre-teaching vocabulary (individual words and chunks) and explaining movie contents. Therefore, in terms of teaching methodology, Instructors B and C were encouraged to adapt the PPT lessons in the way they saw fit for their own lecture, as long as they kept in mind the principles of a dynamic usage-based approach. That is, they should allow for a high frequency of authentic input, and explanation of meaning should be conducted in the target language as much as possible, although some use of the mother tongue was also possible when needed.

To better prepare the instructors, teaching materials were provided to them before the semester started. Teaching materials included PPT movie lessons of the movie *A Cinderella Story* (the first seven lessons fully developed, the rest half-developed), and DVD copies of *A Cinderella Story* and *Bridge to Terabithia* - the two movies to be used for the experimental classes.

Instructor D participated in the study as a regular teacher. She allowed the researcher to administer the test battery in her classes at the beginning and end of the semester and helped collect her students' writings during the semester. She was not aware of the experimental classes and she taught her own class the way the textbook Learning Breakthrough 1 was designed.

3.8.2 Control classes

On the first day of the course, control classes C1 and C2 were informed by their instructors that they were randomly chosen to be a research class and that the researcher would like them to fill in two questionnaires and take one English test. The teachers further assured the participants that the testing materials would not affect their final grade in any possible way, and that they

had the right to withdraw anytime during the study without any penalty. The students willingly agreed, without realizing that they were to be re-administered the same documents at the end of the semester. With the consent of the students, the instructor administered the test battery. One week after the semester had started, the researcher tested the students of control class C3 in a similar manner, with the consent of the students and of Instructor D.

The administration of the test battery was conducted systematically. Before administering the test battery, the researcher or instructor wrote the title of each test document on the board in chronological order, and an estimated time to be spent on each document (Table 3.9). The administrator then explained to the students what each document asked them to do and instructed them on how to answer two example questions for each document.

Table 3.9: Documents and Time Allotted

No	Documents	Time (in minutes)
1	Language Exposure Questionnaire	15
2	WTC and SC Questionnaire	15
3	General English Proficiency Test	70

Because first-year students were likely to be unfamiliar with Likert scales, the administrator explained the meaning of the numbers (1-4) in the WTC and SC questionnaire to all participants before they completed it. These numbers showed a continuum from number 1 to number 4, with 1 indicating the least amount of WTC or SC and 4 indicating the largest amount.

To ensure a smooth administration of the three documents, the administrator also made it clear at the beginning how they were to be administered and collected. Participants were told beforehand that once they had finished a document, they were supposed to quietly walk up to the teacher's desk, hand it over to the teacher, and receive the next document. They were also told that 30 minutes before the end time everyone would stop to listen to the cassette player and complete the 7-minute listening test. In short, participants were well-prepared for what they were expected to do during the test time, which allowed for the test administration of the three research instruments to proceed in an orderly manner.

Although participants were told to write their name and student number on each document, they were aware that this would in no way affect their course grade. The listening part in the General English Proficiency Test was played with a good laptop and a loud speaker.

3.8.3 Experimental classes

The test battery for the experimental classes was administered in a slightly different manner. This was because some extra efforts needed to be made to motivate experimental students to learn English with movies right from the start.

On the first day of the course, experimental classes E1-E3 were each informed by the researcher (in the presence of their instructors, except for Class E2) that they were one of the three classes chosen randomly, with the permission of the University, for a research program

that involved learning English with movies. For ethical issues, the researcher then informed participants of two choices they could make. First, they had the right to choose which examination to take at the end of the semester: the one organized by the university or the one organized by their class instructor. The university exam was meant for those normal classes that learnt English with the university textbook. The instructor exam would be based on the movies they watched in class. Second, they had the right to withdraw from the movie program any time during the second week of the semester and to switch to a different class of their choice with the administrative assistance of the researcher.

Before distributing the testing materials, the researcher gave a 10-minute PowerPoint presentation, overviewing the English movie program, expecting to arouse the students' interest in the program. The slides were in English so that participants could be exposed to English right from the beginning. However, the researcher explained everything mostly in Vietnamese to make sure they understood what the program would be like and what was expected of them in the program. After the lecture, the researcher showed the trailer of the movie *A Cinderella Story* in an attempt to arouse the participants' interest in the movie. After the movie trailer, the researcher distributed and administered the testing materials. As there was about 70 minutes left for the class time, only the Language Exposure Questionnaire and the first page (Parts 1-7) of the General Proficiency English Test were used first. At the end of the first day, participants were asked to register for an English interview that was to be conducted during the first two weeks of the course.

On the second day of the course, which was one or two days after the first day, the researcher repeated the course overview with some detailed additions in a 20-minute PPT presentation. Participants were told that, like any other language, English vocabulary was comprised of both single words and multi-word combinations called chunks. Examples of single words (examples) and chunks (examples) were given to illustrate the point and to raise learners' awareness of English formulaic language. Participants learnt that if they used chunks their English would sound more natural and native-like and that they would learn a lot of spoken chunks from the movies they were going to watch in class. They were also informed about the aims of the course in detail. After the lecture, the WTC-SC questionnaire and the rest of the General Proficiency English test (Parts 8 – 10) were administered. It is noted that the meaning of the numbers (1 – 4) in the WTC-SC questionnaire was also explained to participants before they completed the questionnaire.

The same procedure and information were given to Experimental Class E4, which participated in the study in Week 2 of the semester. The purpose of this addition was to raise the number of participants. The students in this class had finished Unit 1 of the textbook Learning Breakthrough 1. After learning about the research program, they consented to participate in the program. At the end of the class, twelve students (approximately 50% of the class) who already purchased the textbook (and accompanying CDs) sold it back to the researcher. Among them, two expressed some kind of worry about movies. They felt that learning English with movies was meant to be for English majors and that their English was not good enough to learn in this way. The researcher told them that the movies were easy to watch and reassured them that they would be able to do the coursework with the help of the teacher.

3.8.4 Interview

Interviews were conducted on a different date mostly during the first week of the semester. Although many participants registered for the interview upon instruction, only 71 students attended the interview at the beginning of the study (pre-speaking). Many did not come to the interview due to class schedules or possible shyness. However, all participants were present for the interview at the end of the study (post-speaking). This was thanks to the fact that the interview was scheduled as their oral examination. In the pre-interview, due to students' different time schedules, only one participant was interviewed at a time. In the post-interview, two participants were interviewed at a time and the participants were allowed to pair up with a partner of their choice so that they could feel most at ease at the interview. The purpose of this format of pair-interview was two-fold: to save time and at the same time to comply with the departmental policy that stipulated two students having a conversation on a given topic at the oral exam.

Efforts were made to make participants feel as comfortable as possible in the interviews. In the pre-interview, the interviewer (the researcher) warmly greeted the student to be interviewed by saying "Hello, please come in" and "Please sit down", instructed him/her to write his/her name on the interview sheet, and explained to him/her (in Vietnamese) what to do for the interview. He/she was told that first he/she introduced themselves, and then he/she answered some of the teacher's questions. He/she was also told that he/she was going to be videotaped for research purposes. When they were ready, the interviewer started by saying, "Hello. And thank you for coming to the interview. Now, could you please tell me something about yourself?" If the subject looked puzzled, the question was switched to "Could you please introduce yourself?" which was a more familiar question for the students.

In the post-interview, the process was conducted in the same manner, except for the fact that the researcher started the interview by calling participants' names, given that she knew the names of almost all the participants by now, and asking them to say something more about themselves. Participants in the post-interview were also videotaped for research purposes.

3.9 Data analysis

Four analyses were carried out to answer the four research questions, which aimed to see if the Experimental Group gained more on general proficiency, chunks, WTC, and SC. First, data of all the seven classes were treated to see if there was a difference between the Control and Experimental Group on general proficiency (receptive proficiency, speaking, and self-reported proficiency), chunks, WTC, and SC. This meant that all the instructors (Instructors A, B, C, and D) were involved. To control for teacher effects, the data of only the classes that were taught by Instructors A and B were compared. To double-check if Instructors A and B, who participated in both teaching conditions, were biased in their teaching of each condition, both the data of Control Classes only (or Instructors A, B, and C) and of Experimental Classes only (or Instructors A, B, and D) were analyzed.

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 16.0 was used for all the analyses. For the first two analyses (Analyses 1 and 2) which involved an independent variable with two levels (control and experimental groups), Independent Samples t-Tests were used. For the last two analyses (Analyses 3 and 4) which involved an independent variable with more than two levels (the three and four different classes), ANOVA tests were run.

The dependent variables were the gain scores (unless otherwise indicated), which were defined as the scores at the end of the study minus the scores at the beginning of the study.

By using gain scores, the standard deviations (SDs) of the gain scores can potentially be rather large when compared to the mean of the gain score. This; however, is as can be expected: the average of the gain score will become equal to the difference between the averages of pre-test and post-test and will normally be close to zero. For individual subjects the deviations of the mean on pre-test and post-test will however not cancel out (working against each other) unless pre-test and post-test are highly correlated (they will cancel out if correlated; they will not cancel out if uncorrelated). Thus, for uncorrelated and low correlated pre-test and post-test data, the SD of the gain score will often be larger than the average SD of pre-test and post-test. (For uncorrelated variables the SD of the gain equals the square root of the sum of the squared SDs of pre-test and post-test.)

In Analysis 1 (the main analysis of the current study), besides gain scores that were used to examine the difference between the two different groups (the Control and the Experimental Groups) in all the measurements, Paired-Samples t-Tests were also computed to see if there was a difference, within each group, between the measurement at the beginning and that at the end of the study. The dependent variables were the scores at the beginning and those at the end of the study. The independent variables were the condition, either control or experimental.

We used an alpha level of .05 for all statistical tests in Analyses 1, 3, and 4, and of .10 for all statistical tests in Analysis 2. Below are the four analyses in detail.

3.9.1 Analysis 1: Effects of the DUB program with all instructors involved

3.9.1.1 General (receptive) proficiency

The data of six participants were eliminated from analysis of the General English Proficiency score because the subjects did not take either the pre-test or the post-test, leaving 163 complete data sets for pre-test-post-test analysis. The listening items of the test were coded in a way that each blank was counted as one item. For example, the first three blanks in the listening test were coded as items 43, 44, 45 and the next blanks were coded as items 46, 47, 48, and so forth. The test had a total item of 63 items. Each correct answer was given one point, except for the five items in Part 5. Correct answers to each of these five items were given two points. Therefore, the maximum possible score of the receptive GEP test was 68.

The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variable was the gain score of the receptive GEP, which was defined as the post-test receptive general proficiency scores minus the pre-test receptive general proficiency scores.

3.9.1.2 Writing

489 texts written by the 163 participants were rated holistically by six independent raters. The texts were produced in the pre-test, post-test, and in the final examination. The raters (three male and three female) were experienced EFL writing teachers of whom five were from Can Tho University and the other one from Ha Noi National Foreign Languages University. The texts were typed exactly as hand-written. They were arranged according to the name list of each class and the order of the classes was sorted as follows: E1, C1, E2, C2, E3, C3, and E4. The texts were arranged chronologically for each class. For example, the written texts of class E1 were sorted as pre-writing, post-writing, and examination writing. Then came the written texts of class C1 and so forth.

The raters did not know the students, their instructor, or when the texts were produced. The only thing that the raters were let known about the texts they were rating was that the texts were produced by General English 1 students who were participants in the researcher's Ph.D. study. The texts were rated on a scale ranging from 0 (for papers in which no writing was attempted) to 6 (for papers considered the best among the samples). To capture subtle differences between learner texts, raters used a scale of 0.25, 0.5, and 0.75 to increase or lower a score.

There was a reason why the final examination writing was included in the analysis. It was a high stakes test and whereas the control group students had practiced for it, the experimental group students had not. Therefore, it would be meaningful to examine how well the two groups of participants performed on writing when exam-writing was taken into account. It is noted that because the final examination took place shortly after the post-test, exam-writing was considered as similar to post-test writing. Therefore, two kinds of writing gain scores were to be analyzed: writing gain score 1 (i.e., post-writing scores minus pre-writing scores) and writing gain score 2 (i.e., exam-writing scores minus pre-writing scores).

The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variables were the writing gain score 1 and the writing gain score 2.

3.9.1.3 Speaking

Even though all participants participated in the interview at the end of the study, only 71 students came for the interview at the beginning of the study. Because gain scores were used, the analysis included only the 71 students who took both the pre and post-Tests. All interviews were videotaped.

Videotaped interviews performed by 71 same participants were scored by one native EFL teacher. The rater was familiarized with the CAL (Center for Applied Linguistics) Student Oral Proficiency Assessment Rating Scale (CAL, 2009) before the scoring, so he had a general impression of what criteria could be taken into account when scoring a free speech sample.

The pre-test interview samples were entirely scored first and the post-test samples were scored later. To ensure reliability, the researcher and the rater cross-checked their scoring of the

first ten samples. First, both rated five speaking samples independently, compared the scores, and reached an agreement on the final scores based on a 0 – 9 point scale (for the oral proficiency rubric, see Appendix J). The process was repeated with another five samples. After that, the native speaker teacher performed the rating by himself. Using a laptop and headphones, he listened to each participant on the screen and gave a score right after each listening. The researcher was working nearby in case of the need for clarification. On average, it took the rater seven to ten minutes to listen to an interviewee. The total hours spent for the scoring was 24 hours, distributed over 12 two-hour rating sessions.

The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variable was the speaking gain score. The speaking gain score was defined as post-speaking scores minus pre- speaking scores.

3.9.1.4 Self-reported proficiency

Data of 31 participants were eliminated from this analysis of self-assessed proficiency in English due to incomplete data, leaving 138 complete date sets for analysis. A complete data set was one that had a self-reported level of proficiency for all the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). For research purposes to investigate how well participants self-perceived their improvement in the four language skills, scores of each language skill were to be treated separately rather than a sum score of all four language skills. The levels of self-reported proficiency Tốt (Good), Khá (Fair), Thấp (Low), and Rất thấp (Very low) were coded as 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variables were the gain scores of self-reported listening, self-reported speaking, self-reported reading, and self-reported writing. A gain score was defined as a post-score minus a pre-score.

3.9.1.5 Chunks

The data of six participants were eliminated from chunk analysis because the subjects did not take either the pre-test or the post-test, leaving 163 complete data sets for pre-chunk-post-chunk and then pre-chunk-exam-chunk analysis. The data sets consisted of three written texts produced by each participant on the GEP pre-test, the GEP post-test, and the final semester examination. Thus, in total 489 written samples were analyzed. The samples were typed verbatim. They were then sorted chronologically (pre-test, post-test, final exam) and arranged according to student numbers. However, the sorting as well as the student numbers was kept unknown to the raters so that the chunk scoring was made reliable.

Chunks were operationalized as any linguistic units of two or more words that frequently go together. The criteria to define a chunk were adopted from Verspoor et al. (2012). Table 3.10 shows the types of chunks and their definitions from Verspoor et al. (2012). The examples given mostly come from compositions of the participants of the current study.

Because chunks are notoriously difficult to identify objectively and consistently, several steps were taken to identify chunks in the data. First of all, the researcher identified all

the chunks that appeared in each text based on the criteria by Verspoor et al. (2012) and bolded them. Then, by means of the "find and replace" function, all other instances of that particular chunk were identified and bolded. Because Santos, Verspoor, and Nerbonne (2013) found that both correctly used chunks and the sum of correctly and incorrectly used chunks were very strong indicators of proficiency level, both correctly and incorrectly used chunks were taken into account in this corpus. This means that spelling and grammar errors such as *hight school* (high school), *I don't knew why* (I don't know why), and *20 year old* (20 years old) were tolerated.

After identifying all the chunks found in the text, the researcher compiled a list of the chunks and asked two independent judges (one of whom was a native speaker of English) to cross-check, keeping the above-mentioned criteria in mind. A third judge was invited to negotiate differences between Judges 1 and 2. Inconsistencies were found mainly because Judge 1 (NS) did not tolerate errors. A revised list of "acceptable" chunks (i.e., including the ones incorrectly used and the ones with spelling/grammar errors) was made.

After going over the revised list, Judge 2 was re-invited to cross check the chunk analysis that the researcher had made. She was asked to go through the texts carefully and identify any chunks that had not been bolded by the researcher or question the "legitimacy" of any chunks that had been identified previously by the researcher. The researcher and Judge 2 negotiated until agreement was reached. In case of disagreement, Judge 1 was consulted and her judgment was taken as the final decision. Finally, the researcher hand-counted the number of words in all the identified chunks of each written text.

The chunk score was defined as the ratio between the total number of words of the written text and the total number of words in the chunks of the text. This measure is based on Smiskova and Verspoor (2012) who found it to be the only measure to show clear significant differences between low input and high input students. The measure is useful for two main reasons: For one thing, the ratio resolves the problem that different writing samples have different lengths, but more importantly the ratio accounts for the fact that more advanced learners tend to use longer chunks than less proficient learners. Therefore, the ratio captures not only the number of chunks but also the length of the chunks. The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental.

The dependent variables were supposed to be chunk gain score 1 and chunk gain score 2. Chunk gain score 1 was defined as post-chunk scores minus pre-chunk scores. Chunk gain score 2 was defined as exam-chunk scores minus pre-chunk scores. However, due to the uncorrelated relationship between the pre-chunk and post-chunk scores as well as between the pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores, the gain scores were not used. Instead, the post-chunk and exam-chunk scores were used as dependent variables in the chunk analysis.

Table 3.10: Types of chunks identified

Types	Definition	Examples
Partially schematic chunks		
Structures	A fixed part and slot-fillers (here underlined)	two years ago, 20 years old, a nice place to work, etc.
Complements	Verbs with infinitives, gerunds, nominal sentences, or reflexives as complement	I hope (that) + clause, I think + clause, I don't know why, like + V-ing, say that, think that, etc.
Fixed chunks		
Compounds	Fixed combinations of nouns, adjectives, prepositions, or particles	high school, boyfriend, boarding house, etc.
Particles	Verbs or nouns that receive prepositions or particles, phrasal verbs	hang out, participate in, take care of, in the morning, a student of, by train, famous for, at the weekends, look like, at 6 o'clock, travel around the world, a lot of, study at (name of school), live in (name of town/city), etc.
Collocations	Collocating nouns, adjectives, verbs and also adverbs, prepositions, pronouns	best friend, free time, favorite animal, big wish, black eyes, long hair, earn money, every day, each year, my (full) name, my hometown, speak English, watch TV, read books, have breakfast, everything, everyone, etc.
Fixed phrases	Highly institutionalized chunks with referential, often idiomatic, consisting mainly of more than two words	of course, in my free time, in my spare time, go to school, go home, go to work, was born in, etc.
Discourse	Chunks with discourse function	in addition

3.9.1.6 Willingness to communicate

The data of 26 student participants was eliminated from the analysis of willingness to communicate (WTC) in English for reasons related to incomplete data and absence at the administration of the pre-WTC questionnaire, leaving 143 complete data sets for WTC analysis. The total WTC was the sum score of the item scales that a participant circled. A complete data set was one that had responses to all the 35 situations in both WTC and SC sections of the WTC-SC questionnaire. The independent variables were the two conditions (control and experimental). The dependent variable was the WTC gain scores (i.e., the post WTC scores minus the pre-WTC scores.)

3.9.1.7 Self-confidence

The data of 26 student participants was eliminated from analysis of self-confidence (SC) in using English, also for reasons related to incomplete data and absence at the administration of the post-SC questionnaire, leaving 143 complete data sets for SC analysis. The total SC score was the sum score of the item scales that a participant circled. A complete data set was one that had responses to all the 35 situations in both WTC and SC sections of the WTC-SC questionnaire. The independent variables were the two conditions (control and experimental). The dependent variable was the SC gain scores (i.e., the post-SC scores minus the pre-SC scores.)

3.9.2 Analysis 2: Effects of the DUB program with only Instructors A and B involved

Data of 123 participants from five classes C1, C2, E1, E2, and E4 were analyzed. These classes were analyzed because their instructor (Instructors A and B) each taught both control and experimental classes. The other participants (Classes C3 and E3) were excluded from this analysis because their instructor had only one class, either a control or an experimental one. The purpose of this investigation was to see if the students of both Instructor A and Instructor B performed better with the experimental program (the DUB program). To this end, Independent Sample t-Tests were used to see if there was a significant difference in all the variables (as in Analysis 1) between the two groups that *each* instructor taught. That is, for Instructor A, Class C1 was compared to Class E1 and for Instructor B, Class C2 to Classes E2 and E4 combined. Then, the results were compared to see how many significant differences were in favor of the DUB program and how many in favor of the Task-based program for both instructors. The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variable was the gain score in every measure.

3.9.3 Analysis 3: Effects of the DUB program with only experimental classes involved

The purpose of this investigation was to check if Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, were biased in their teaching of the experimental classes. To this end, their experimental classes (Classes E1, E2, and E4) were compared with Class E3 – one that was taught by an instructor who was not involved in teaching a control class. Since only experimental classes were involved, only data of experimental group participants was to be analyzed. ANOVA tests were run to see if there were significant differences in all measures among the four experimental classes. If there were no differences, Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased. If yes, Post-hoc analyses were to be carried out to see which experimental class was different from which experimental class. The independent variable was the class (the four experimental classes). The dependent variable was the respective gain score in every measure.

3.9.3.1 General (receptive) proficiency

Data of all 94 experimental group participants (i.e., 94 out of the 163 participants used in Analysis 1) were analyzed to see if there were differences among the four experimental classes in general (receptive) proficiency.

3.9.3.2 Writing

282 texts written by 94 experimental group participants were analyzed to see if there were differences among the four experimental classes in writing proficiency. As in earlier analyses, two kinds of writing gain scores were to be analyzed: writing gain score 1 (post-writing scores minus pre-writing scores) and writing gain score 2 (exam-writing scores minus pre-writing scores).

3.9.3.3 Speaking

Data of 44 experimental group participants who had both pre- and post-speaking scores were analyzed to see if there were differences between the four experimental classes in speaking proficiency.

3.9.3.4 Self-reported proficiency

Data of 80 experimental group participants who completed both the pre- and post- English language exposure questionnaires were analyzed to see if there were differences between the four classes in each of the four self-reported language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

3.9.3.5 Chunks

Data of 94 experimental group participants were analyzed to see if there were differences between the four experimental classes in use of chunks.

3.9.3.6 Willingness to communicate

Data of 85 experimental group participants who completed both the pre- and post- WTC questionnaires were analyzed to see if there were differences between the four experimental classes in WTC.

3.9.3.7 Self-confidence

Data of 83 experimental group participants who completed both the pre- and post- SC questionnaires were analyzed to see if there were differences between the four experimental classes in SC.

3.9.4 Analysis 4: Effects of the Task-based program with only control classes involved

In the same vein as Analysis 3, the purpose of this investigation was to check if Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, were biased in their teaching of the control classes. To this end, their control classes (Classes C1, and C2) were compared with Class C3 – one that was taught by an instructor who was not involved in teaching an experimental class. Since only control classes were involved, only data of control group participants was to be analyzed. ANOVA tests were used to see if there were significant differences in all the variables among the three control classes. If there were no differences, Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased. If a significant difference was found, Post-hoc analyses were to be carried out to see which control class was different other control classes. The independent variable was the condition, either control or experimental. The dependent variable was the respective gain score in every measure.

3.9.4.1 General (receptive) proficiency

The data of all 69 control class participants (i.e., 69 out of the 163 participants used in Analysis 1) were analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in general (receptive) proficiency.

3.9.4.2 Writing

207 texts written by 69 control group participants were analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in writing proficiency. As in earlier analyses, two kinds of writing gain scores were to be analyzed: writing gain score 1 (post-writing scores minus pre-writing scores) and writing gain score 2 (exam-writing scores minus pre-writing scores).

3.9.4.3 Speaking

Data of 27 control group participants who had both pre- and post- speaking scores were analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in speaking proficiency.

3.9.4.4 Self-reported proficiency

The data of 58 control group participants who completed both the pre- and post- English language exposure questionnaires was analyzed to see if there were differences between the

three control classes in each of the four self-reported language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

3.9.4.5 Chunks

The data of 69 control group participants was analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in use of chunks.

3.9.4.6 Willingness to communicate

The data of 60 control group participants who completed both the pre- and post- WTC questionnaires were analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in WTC.

3.9.4.7 Self-confidence

The data of 60 control group participants who completed both the pre- and post- SC questionnaires were analyzed to see if there were differences between the three control classes in SC.

3.10 Summary

This chapter describes the set-up and analytical procedures of the current study. The design of the study was a pre-post-test longitudinal study that set out to investigate the effectiveness of a DUB approach to teaching English as a second language, measured by a language test, and two questionnaires. There was one control group (n = 69) and one experimental group (n = 94). Conducted in a natural university classroom setting, the study aimed to investigate whether or not a DUB approach to teaching a second language benefited EFL low-proficiency learners in terms of general proficiency, the use of chunks, WTC and SC. For the research questions to be answered, four analyses were carried out. Analysis 1 looked at the effects of the DUB program when the data of all 163 participants (control and experimental ones) of all four instructors was analyzed. Analysis 2 looked at the effects of the DUB program when only students of Classes C1, C2, E1, E2, and E4 were analyzed. In the second analysis, Instructors A and B were *each* examined to see if they were successful with the traditional non-DUB class or the DUB class(es). In order to see if teachers who taught both control and experimental classes (two-condition teachers) were biased in their teaching for each condition, two more analyses were carried out. Analysis 3 compared the results of the four experimental classes and Analysis 4 compared the results of the three control classes. For the first two analyses, Independent Samples t-Tests were used to see if there was a significant difference between the Control and Experimental groups in how much they gained on general proficiency, writing, speaking, self-reported proficiency (self-reported listening, self-reported speaking, self-reported reading, self-

reported writing), chunks, WTC, and SC. For the last two analyses, in which the independent variable involved more than two levels (the classes), ANOVA tests were run.

Chapter 4
Results

This chapter reports on four sets of results from the current study. In every set, the list of variables analyzed follows this sequence: general (receptive) proficiency, writing, speaking, self-reported proficiency, chunks, willingness to communicate, and self-confidence. Result 1 reports on the results when all four instructors were involved. Result 2 reports on the results when only Instructors A and B were involved. Result 3 reports on the results when only the Experimental Group was involved. Result 4 reports on the results when only the Control Group was involved.

4.1 Results 1: Effects of the DUB program for all instructors

As mentioned in Section 4.6, although all seven classes were placed in the same General English 1 program based on their TOEIC scores, their pre-test scores were examined to see if the participants were actually at the same level of proficiency at the beginning of the study. A one-way ANOVA on pre-test scores showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(6,156) = 1.57$; $p = .16$. This result indicates that there was no difference in pre-test scores between the seven classes. Table 4.1 displays the mean scores of the general receptive proficiency pre-test of the seven classes.

However, if we took all the control classes as one Control Group and all the experimental classes as one Experimental Group, an Independent Samples t-Test showed that the difference in pre-test scores between the two groups was significant, $t(161) = -.24$; $p = .016$, in favor of the Experimental Group (See Table 4.2 below for means and standard deviations of the pre-test scores of both groups). This result suggested that at the beginning, the Experimental Group was more proficient than the Control Group. Because there was a difference in pre-test scores between the Control and Experimental Groups, gain scores were used.

Table 4.1: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-test Receptive Proficiency Scores of Seven Classes

Class	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
C1	25	12.52	4.32	6	24
C2	18	13.11	5.42	4	24
C3	26	10.58	6.01	1	26
E1	26	14.35	6.05	4	26
E2	29	13.38	5.40	3	25
E3	14	14.86	3.68	8	21
E4	25	14.04	6.11	2	28
Total	163	13.15	5.52	1	28

Note. Six participants were absent from the pre-test. Therefore, the total number of participants was 163.

4.1.1 General (receptive) proficiency

The reliability of the receptive General English Proficiency (GEP) test proved to be acceptable with a value of .72 for Cronbach's α for the pre-test and .77 for the post-test. The histogram of the receptive GEP gain scores looked normal. A Pearson's correlation analysis showed that there was a significant positive relationship between the pre-test and post-test scores, $r(161)= .57$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed), showing that the higher participants scored on the pre-test, the higher they would score on the post-test. Table 4.2 presents the means and standard deviations of the receptive GEP pre-test, the receptive GEP post-test, and the receptive GEP gain scores of both groups.

Table 4.2: Mean and Standard Deviations of Pre-test, Post-test, and Receptive GEP Gain Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-test Mean (SD)	Post-test Mean (SD)	GEP Gain Mean (SD)
Control	69	11.94 (5.33)	17.88 (6.42)	5.94 (5.37)
Experimental	94	14.04 (5.51)	23.86 (6.66)	9.82 (6.33)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the Control Group, $t(68) = -9.19$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(93) = -15.04$;

p <.001. These results show that each group improved during its relevant program. Figure 4.1 shows pre-test and post-test proficiency scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

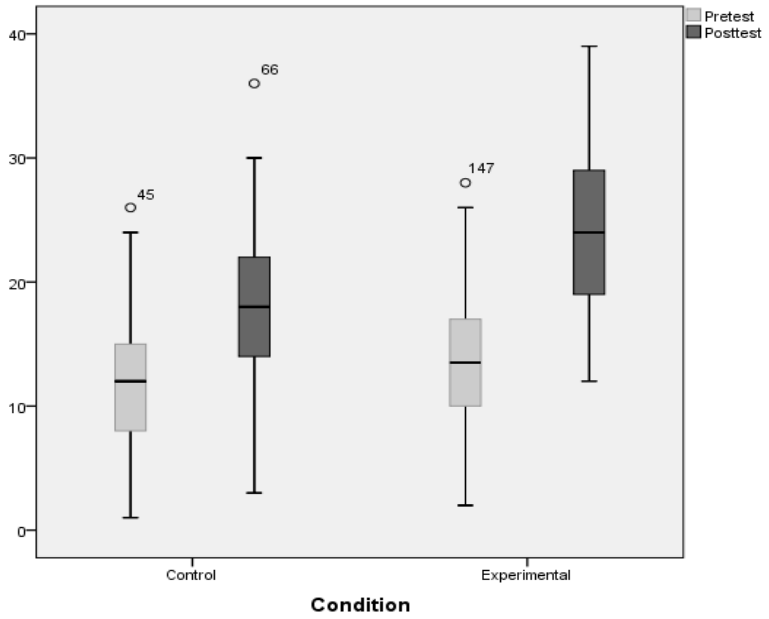

Figure 4.1: Pre-test and Post-test Receptive GEP Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

As can be seen in Table 4.2, the experimental group participants gained 65% more than their peers on proficiency. The Independent Samples t-Test revealed that the difference was significant, $t(161) = -4.12$; $p < .001$. This result indicates that the Experimental Group, which had exposure to authentic language, no speaking practice, and no grammatical explanations, performed better in the General English Proficiency test than the Control Group, which had more interaction and grammar lessons.

The size of the effect (the difference between the experimental and control conditions) was .72 SDs of the control group (Cohen's d). An effect size of .50 is often considered to be moderate and an effect size of .80 to be large (Cohen, 1988: 25). Therefore, the effect of the new teaching method on receptive general proficiency was considerable. Figure 4.2 shows proficiency gain scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

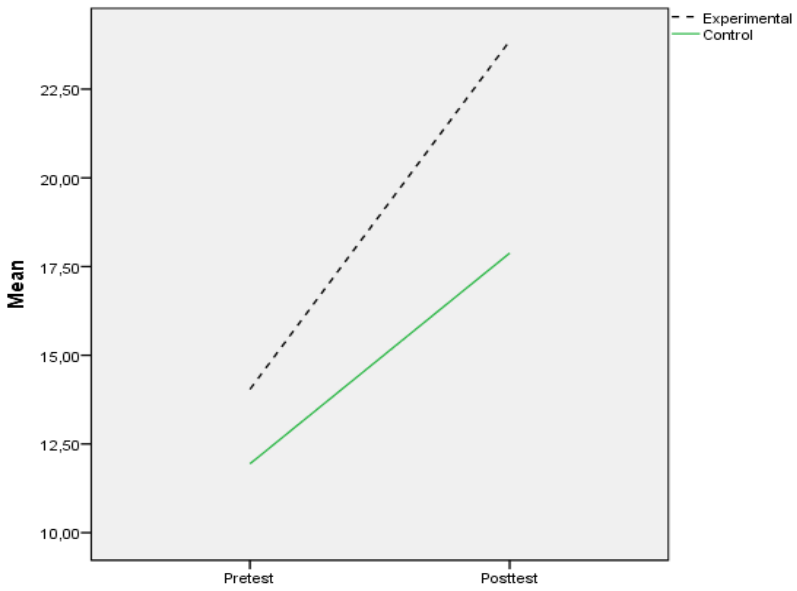

Figure 4.2: Increase in the Average Receptive GEP Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.2 Writing

The interrater reliability of the writing scores proved to be high with a value of .96 for Cronbach's α for the six raters. The mean correlation between the raters was .81.

4.1.2.1 Writing gain score 1

The histograms of writing gain score 1 looked normal. A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between pre-writing scores and post-writing scores, $r(161) = .35$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed), showing that the higher participants scored in the pre-writing test, the higher they would score in the post-writing test. Table 4.3 presents the means and standard deviations of writing gain score 1 of both groups.

Table 4.3: Mean and Standard Deviations of Pre-Writing, Post-Writing, and Writing Gain Scores 1 of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-Writing Mean (SD)	Post-Writing Mean (SD)	Writing Gain 1 Mean (SD)
Control	69	1.17 (.84)	2.23 (.87)	1.05 (.97)
Experimental	94	1.05 (1.01)	2.43 (.77)	1.41 (1.00)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-writing and the post-writing of the Control Group, $t(68) = -9.03$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(93) = -13.46$; $p < .001$. These results show that each group wrote better towards the end of its

relevant program. This may indicate that studying how to write improved the learners' writing skill (as seen in the case of the Control Group) and that taking the focus off the skill may as well have had a positive effect on the learners' writing skill (as seen in the case of the Experimental Group). Figure 4.3 shows the pre-writing and post-writing scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

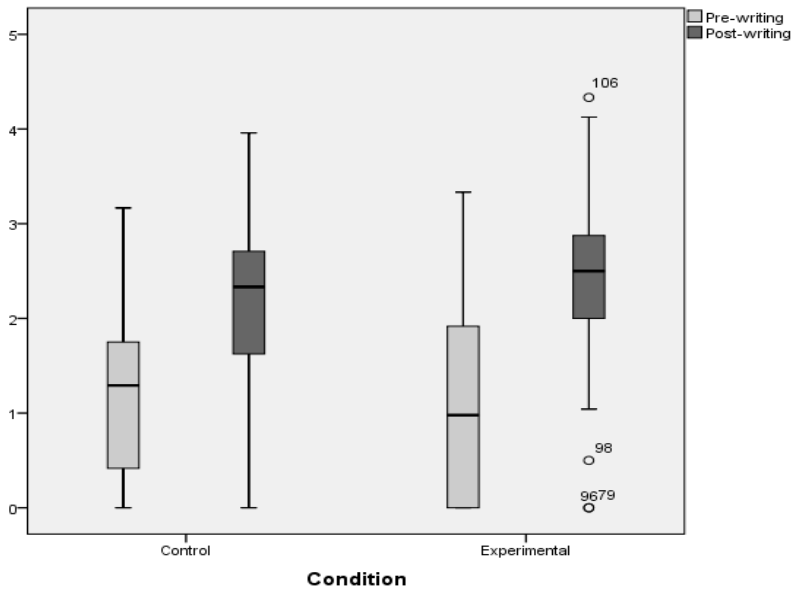

Figure 4.3: Pre- and Post-writing Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the experimental group participants scored higher than control group participants on the post-writing test. The Independent Samples t-Test revealed that the difference in the writing gain score 1 was significant, $t(161) = -2.31$; $p = .02$. This result indicates that the Experimental Group, which had exposure to authentic language, no speaking practice, no grammatical explanations, and only free writing (no writing lessons) performed better on writing than the Control Group, which had more interaction, grammar lessons, and writing lessons.

The size of the effect (the difference between the experimental and control conditions) was .37 SDs of the control group (Cohen's d). An effect size of .20 to .30 is often considered to be small (Cohen, 1988: 25). So the effect of the new teaching method on writing was small. Figure 4.4 shows increase in average of writing scores (1) of Control and Experimental Groups.

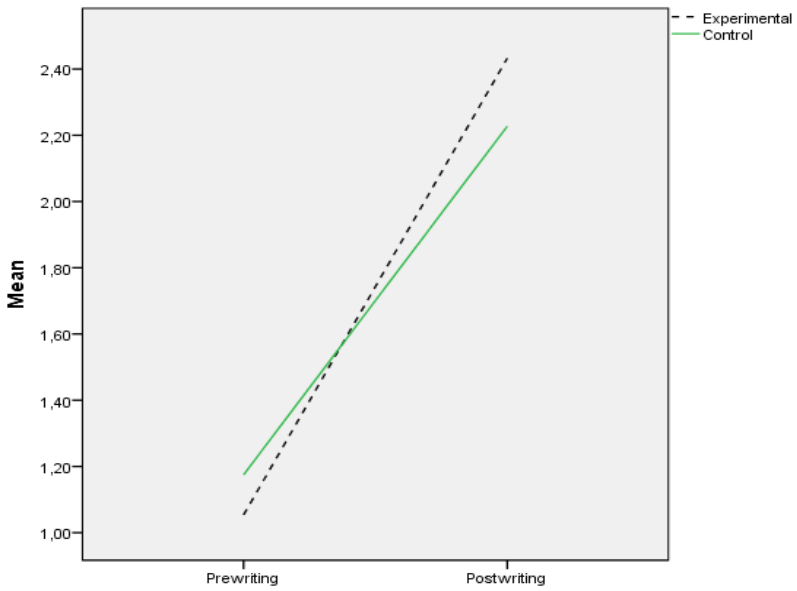

Figure 4.4: Increase in Average of Writing Scores (1) of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.2.2 Writing gain score 2

The histograms of writing gain score 2 looked normal. A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was a relatively positive relationship between pre-writing scores and exam-writing scores, $r(161) = .31$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed), showing that the higher participants scored in the pre-writing test, the higher they would score in the exam-writing test. Table 4.6 presents the mean and standard deviation of pre-writing scores, exam-writing scores, and writing gain score 2 of both groups.

Table 4.6: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Writing, Exam-Writing, and Writing Gain Scores 2 of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-Writing Mean (SD)	Exam-Writing Mean (SD)	Writing Gain 2 Mean (SD)
Control	69	1.17 (.84)	3.00 (.67)	1.83 (1.02)
Experimental	94	1.05 (1.01)	2.80 (.77)	1.74 (.98)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-writing and the exam-writing of the Control Group, $t(67) = -14.68$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(93) = -17.23$; $p < .001$. These results again show that each group learned how to write better towards the end of its relevant program. Yet, considering the fact that DUB students did not study how to write during the program, it can be said that the DUB approach does not hamper the learners'

writing skill. Table 4.6 displays the correlations between the pre-writing and post-writing of each group. Figure 4.5 shows the increase in writing of the Control and Experimental Groups.

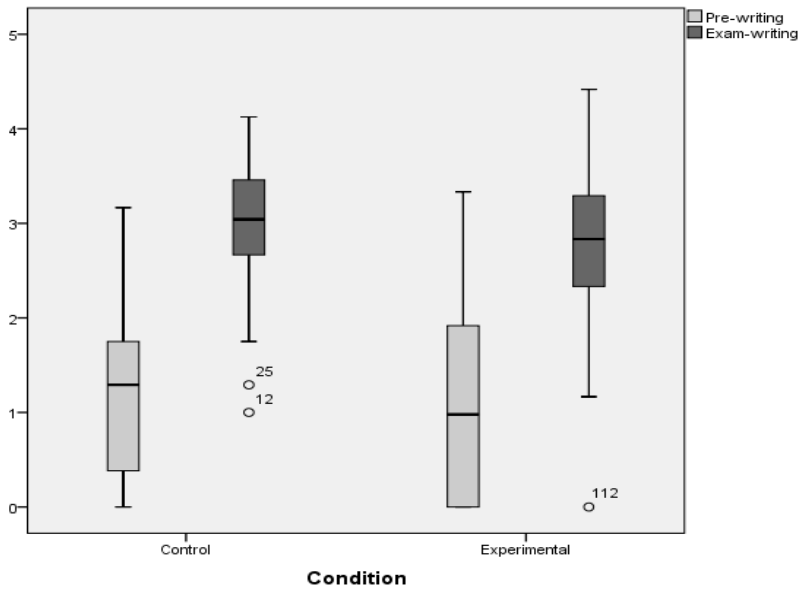

Figure 4.5: Pre- and Exam-writing Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

As can be seen in Table 4.6, participants in the Control Group performed slightly better on writing on both the pre- and exam-writing tests. However, the Independent Samples *t*-Test analysis revealed that the difference in the writing gain score 2 was non-significant, $t(161) = .524$; $p = .60$. This result indicates that although experimental group students did not practice for the written examination, they performed equally well on the final examination writing test as the control group students.

4.1.3 Speaking

The histogram of the speaking gain score looked to be distributed normally. A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the pre-test speaking scores and the post-test speaking scores, $r(69) = .58$; $p < .001$ (two- tailed), indicating that the higher students scored in the speaking pre-test the higher they would score in the speaking post-test. Table 4.7 displays the means and standard deviations of speaking gain scores of both groups.

Table 4.7: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Speaking, Post-Speaking, and Speaking Gain Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-Speaking Mean (SD)	Post-Speaking Mean (SD)	Speaking Gain Mean (SD)
Control	27	1.77 (1.32)	1.99 (.97)	.22 (1.05)
Experimental	44	1.54 (1.17)	2.24 (1.05)	.70 (1.02)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the pre-speaking and the post-speaking of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(43) = -4.57$; $p < .001$, but the difference between the pre-speaking and post-speaking of the Control Group was non-significant, $t(26) = -1.12$; $p = .28$. These results further confirm the suggestion in this section that the DUB approach seems to be more effective than the Task-based approach in increasing the speaking skills of EFL learners. Figure 4.6 shows pre- and post-speaking scores of the Experimental Group.

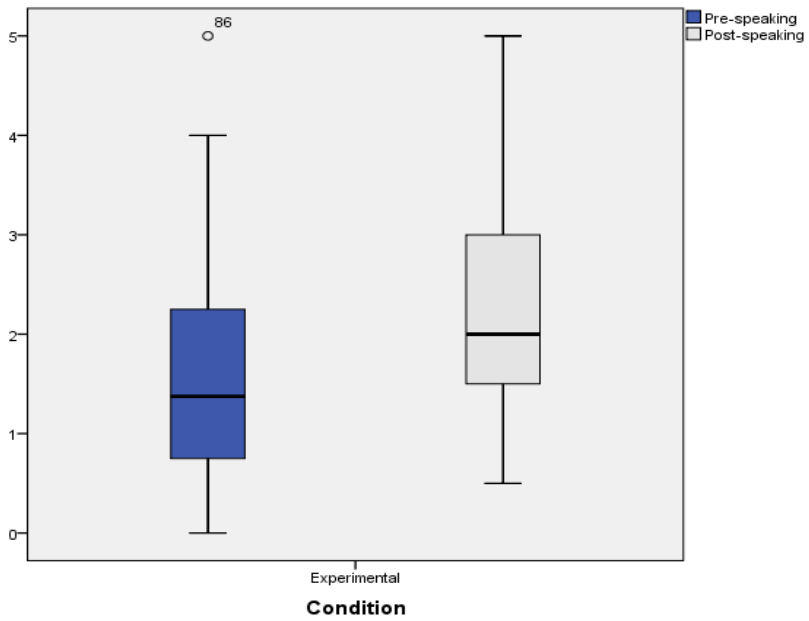

Figure 4.6: Pre- and Post-speaking Scores of Experimental Group

As can be seen in Table 4.7, the experimental group participants performed better on speaking. The Independent Samples t-Test analysis revealed that there was a trend towards significance in favor of the Experimental Group ($M = .70$, $SD = 1.02$) over the Control Group ($M = .22$, $SD = 1.05$) with regard to the speaking skill, $t(69) = -1.90$; $p = .06$. This analysis indicates that the Experimental Group who had exposure to authentic language but no speaking

practice time in class had a tendency to perform better than the Control Group who had more speaking practice in class during the course of a semester. Figure 4.5 shows pre- and post-writing scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

The size of the effect (the difference between the experimental and control conditions) was .46 SDs of the control group (Cohen's d). So the effect of the new teaching method on writing showed to be moderate. Figure 4.7 shows increase in average speaking scores of Control and Experimental Groups.

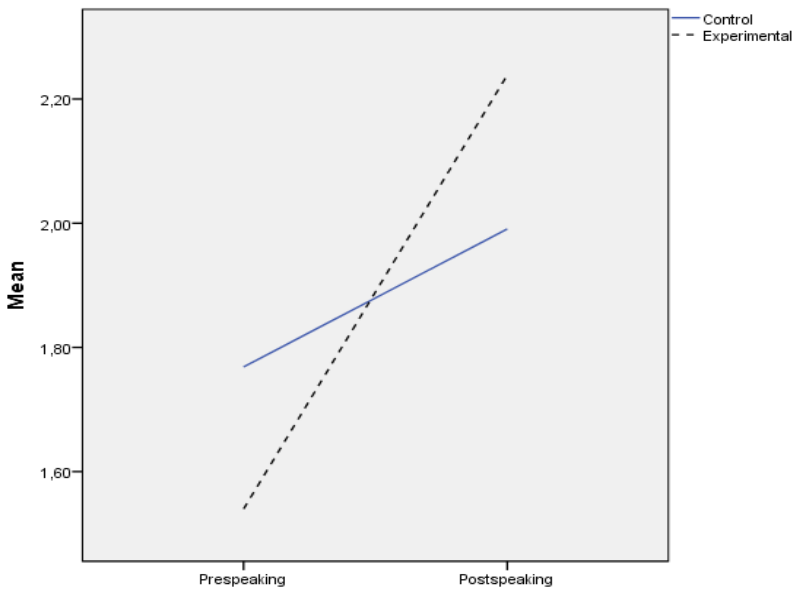

Figure 4.7: Increase in Average Speaking Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.4 Self-reported proficiency

The reliability of the initial proficiency self-reports proved to be acceptable with a value of .85 for Cronbach's α, with a mean correlation between the four self-reports of language skills of .59. The reliability of the post proficiency self-reports also proved to be acceptable with a value of .83 for Cronbach's α, with a mean correlation between the four self-reports of language skills of .56. Histograms of the gain score of each self-reported language skill looked normal.

A Pearson's correlations analysis shows that there was a significant positive relationship between each pair of the self-reported language skills: $r(136) = .37$; $p < .001$ for initial and post self-reported listening, $r(136) = .45$; $p < .001$ for initial and post-self-reported speaking, $r(136) = .64$; $p < .001$ for initial and post-self-reported reading, and $r(136) = .43$; $p < .001$ for initial and post-self-reported writing. These results indicated that the higher participants self-assessed their level of proficiency in the four language skills at the beginning

of the semester, the higher they would do so at the end of the study. Table 4.10 shows the means and standard deviations of the pre-scores, post-scores, and gain scores of each of the four self-reported language skills.

Table 4.10: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Scores, Post-Scores, and Gain Scores of Four Self-Reported Language Skills of Control and Experimental Groups

Self-reported language skills	Condition	N	Pre-skill Mean (SD)	Post-skill Mean (SD)	Gain scores Mean (SD)
Listening	Control	58	1.69 (.65)	1.76 (.51)	.07 (.65)
	Experimental	80	1.48 (.53)	1.84 (.56)	.36 (.60)
Speaking	Control	58	1.69 (.57)	2.00 (.59)	.31 (.63)
	Experimental	80	1.66 (.55)	2.00 (.57)	.34 (.57)
Reading	Control	58	2.12 (.70)	2.36 (.72)	.24 (.57)
	Experimental	80	2.01 (.67)	2.34 (.67)	.33 (.59)
Writing	Control	58	1.83 (.73)	1.98 (.69)	.16 (.67)
	Experimental	80	1.63 (.54)	1.95 (.59)	.33 (.67)

4.1.4.1 Self-reported listening

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the self-reported pre- and the self-reported post-listening of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(79) = -5.40$; $p < .001$, but the difference between the self-reported pre-listening and the self-reported post-listening of the Control Group was non-significant $t(57) = -.81$; $p = .42$. These results suggest that the DUB approach seems to be more effective than the Task-based approach in increasing the listening skills of EFL learners. Figure 4.8 shows the pre and post-self-reported listening scores of the Experimental Group.

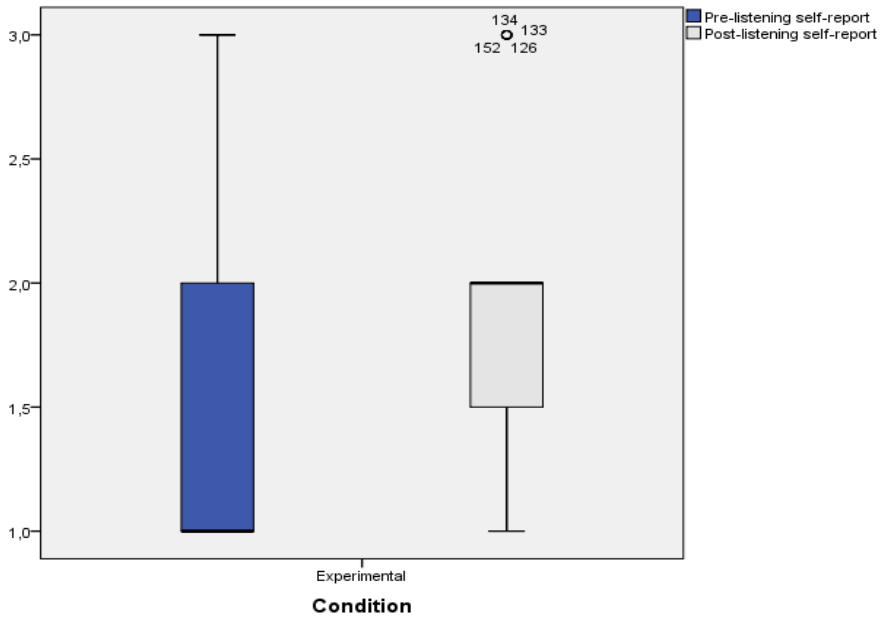

Figure 4.8: Pre and Post Self-reported Listening Scores of Experimental Group

4.1.4.2 Self-reported speaking

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the self-reported pre- and the self-reported post-speaking of the Control Group and of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(57) = -3.77$; $p < .001$ and $t(79) = -5.27$; $p < .001$, respectively. These results suggest that both the DUB approach and the Task-based approach improved self-reported speaking skills of EFL learners. Figure 4.9 shows the pre and post-self-reported speaking scores of the Control and Experimental Group.

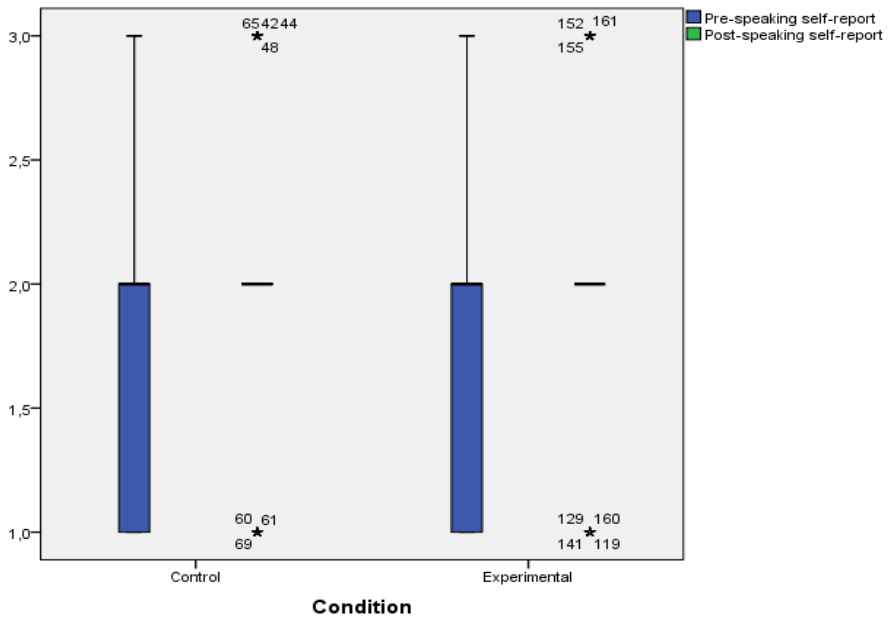

Figure 4.9: Pre and Post Self-reported Speaking Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.4.3 Self-reported reading

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the self-reported pre-reading and the self-reported post-reading of the Control Group and of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(57) = -3.2$; $p < .001$ and $t(79) = -4.92$; $p < .001$, respectively. These results suggest that both the DUB approach and the Task-based approach improved self-reported reading skills of EFL learners. Figure 4.10 shows the pre and post-self-reported reading scores of the Control and Experimental Group.

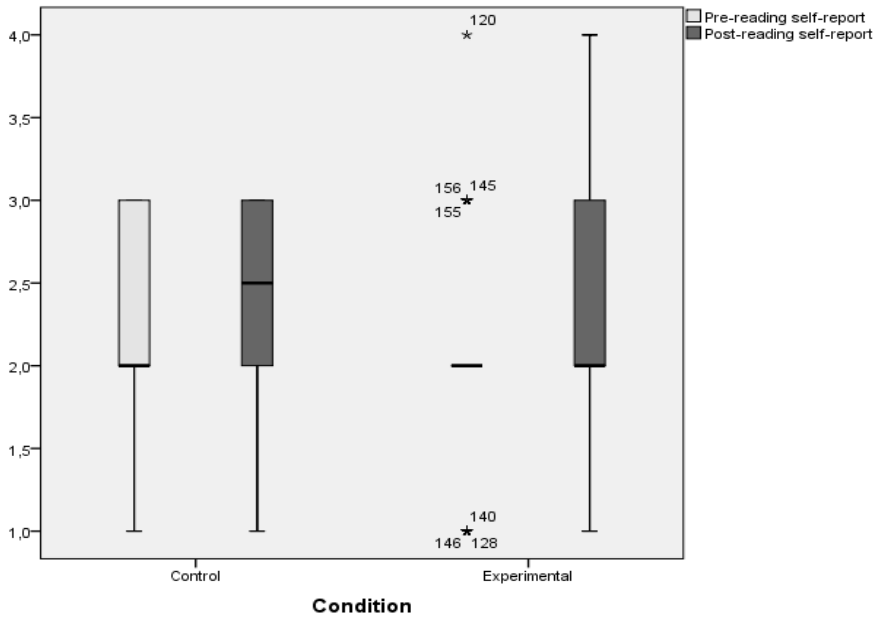

Figure 4.10: Pre and Post Self-reported Reading Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.4.4 Self-reported writing

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the self-reported pre-writing and the self-reported post-writing of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(79) = -4.33$; $p < .001$, but the difference between the self-reported pre-writing and the self-reported post-writing of the Control Group was non-significant, $t(57) = -1.76$; $p = .08$. These results suggest that the DUB approach seems to be more effective than the Task-based approach in increasing the writing skills of EFL learners. Figure 4.11 shows the pre and post-self-reported writing scores of the Experimental Group.

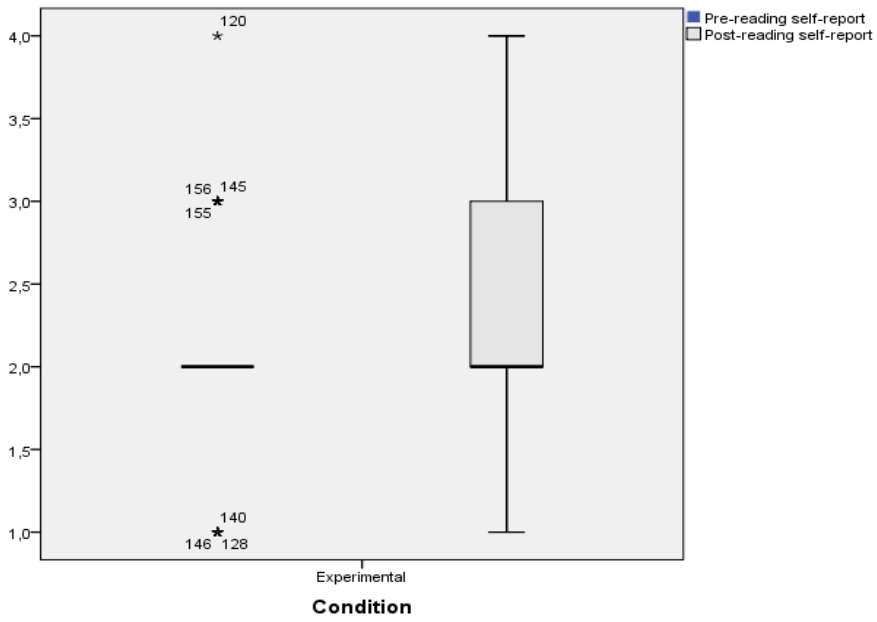

Figure 4.11: Pre and Post Self-reported Writing Scores of Experimental Group

As can be seen in Table 4.10, participants in the Experimental Group performed better on all the four language skills at the end of the study. However, the Independent Samples t-Test revealed that the Experimental Group significantly outscored the Control Group only on the self-reported listening skill, $t(136) = -2.75$; $p = .01$, not on the other three skills: $t(136) = -.26$; $p = .80$ for the self-reported speaking skill, $t(136) = -.83$; $p = .41$ for the self-reported reading skill, and $t(136) = -1.47$; $p = .14$ for the self-assessed writing skill. These results indicated that (1) the experimental group learners self-assessed their listening skills higher than their peers did, which could be attributed to the authentic listening input they were given in greater quantity and more frequent repetition in the DUB (movie) program, and (2) the experimental group learners self-assessed the other three language skills equally as well as their peers did. Figure 4.7 shows pre- and post-self-reported listening scores of the Control and Experimental Groups. Figure 4.12 shows self-reported listening gain scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

The size of the effect (the difference between the experimental and control conditions) was .45 SDs of the control group (Cohen's d). So the effect of the new teaching method on self-reported listening showed to be quite moderate.

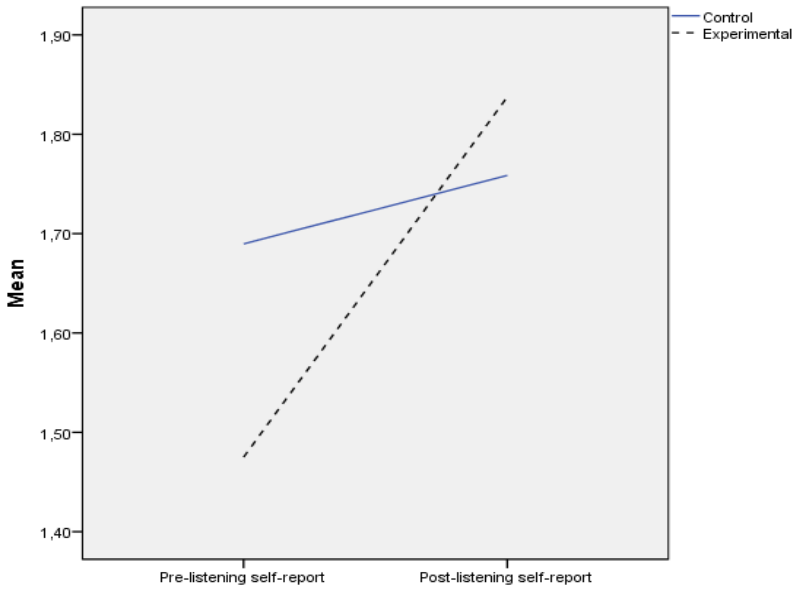

Figure 4.12: Increase in Average Self-reported Listening Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

4.1.5 Chunks

The histogram of the pre-chunk scores did not look to be distributed normally. Many participants had a pre-chunk score of zero because they did not write anything. The histograms of the post-chunk and exam-chunk scores looked to be distributed normally. Table 4.11 presents the means and standard deviations of the pre-chunk, post-chunk, and exam-chunk scores of both groups.

Table 4.11: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-chunk, Post-chunk, and Exam-Chunk of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-chunk Mean (SD)	Post-chunk Mean (SD)	Exam-chunk Mean (SD)
Control	69	.21 (.16)	.28 (.12)	.42 (.11)
Experimental	94	.18 (.17)	.27 (.11)	.40 (.13)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-chunk and the post-chunk of the Control Group, $t(68) = -9.49$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(93) = -4.74$; $p < .001$. These results show that both teaching approaches improve the use of chunks of the learners. Figure 4.13 shows the pre- and post- chunk scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

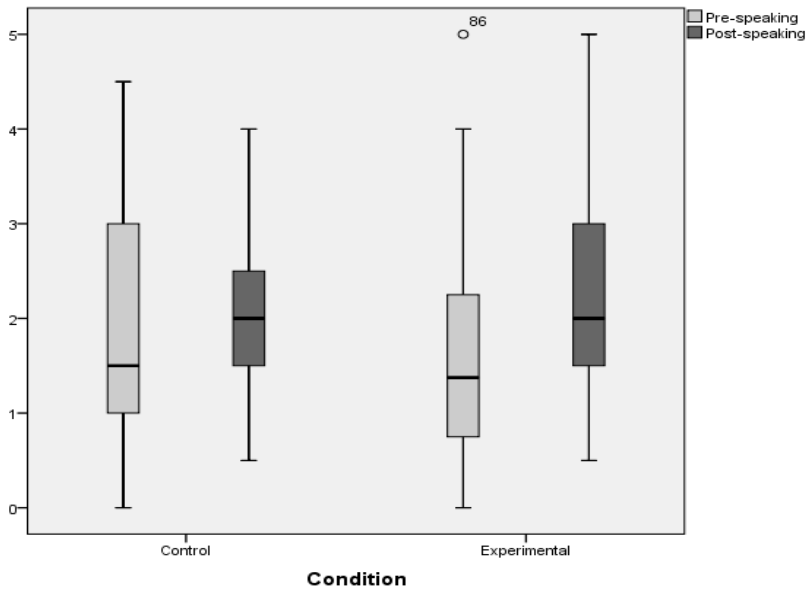

Figure 4.13: Pre- and Post- chunk Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores of the Control Group, $t(68) = -9.49$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(93) = -9.76$; $p < .001$. These results also show that both teaching approaches improve the use of chunks of the learners. Figure 4.14 shows the pre- and post- chunk scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

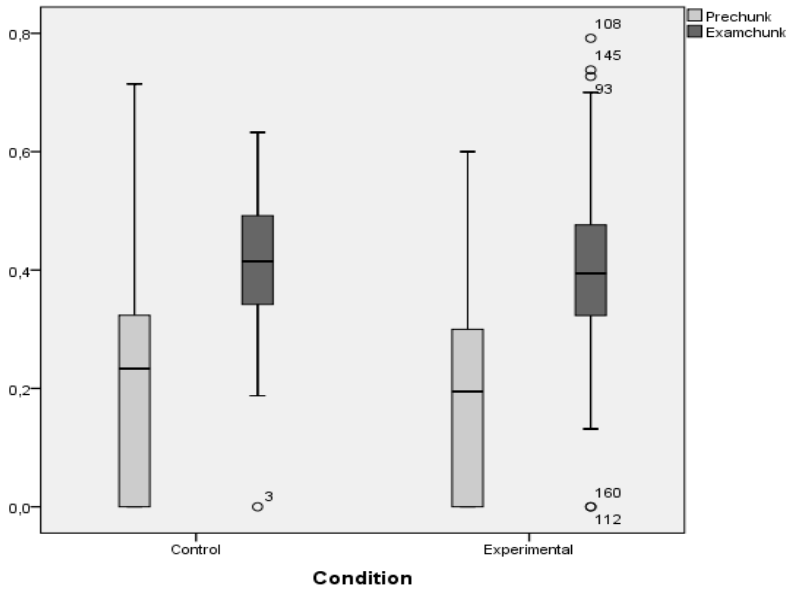

Figure 4.14: Pre- and Exam- chunk Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was no relationship between pre-writing chunk scores and post-writing chunk scores, $r(163) = .06$; $p = .49$ (two-tailed) and between pre-writing chunk scores and exam-writing chunk scores, $r(163) = .04$; $p = .60$ (two-tailed). The almost zero correlation indicates that the reliability of the chunk ratio measurement was very low. Using the gain score in this case was not possible, because the difference between two unrelated measures is fully dependent on chance. Therefore, Independent Samples t-Tests were used to analyze if there was a difference between the two conditions on the pre-test, the post-test, and the exam.

As can be seen in Table 4.11, the control group participants scored slightly higher than the experimental group participants on the three measures. However, the Independent Samples t-Tests revealed that the differences between the two conditions in pre-chunk, post-chunk, and exam-chunk were non-significant, $t(161) = 1.12$; $p = .27$; $t(161) = .59$; $p = .56$; and $t(161) = .83$; $p = .41$, respectively. These results indicated that at the start of the study, both groups were comparable in the ability to use chunks and that although participants in the Experimental Group were exposed to chunks more often than their peers in the Control Group, the increase in their use of chunks was just about the same as that of Control Group.

4.1.6 Willingness to communicate

The reliability of the WTC questionnaire proved to be acceptable with a value of .72 for Cronbach's α for the pre-WTC and .77 for the post-WTC. The histogram of the WTC gain score looked normal. A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between the pre-WTC and post-WTC, $r(141) = .43$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed),

indicating that if subjects scored high on WTC on the pre-test, it would be likely that they also scored high on the post-test. Table 4.14 shows the means and standard deviations of WTC gain scores of both groups.

Table 4.14: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-WTC, Post-WTC, and WTC Gain of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-WTC Mean (SD)	Post-WTC Mean (SD)	WTC Gain Mean (SD)
Control	60	93.63 (26.54)	103.05 (25.45)	9.41 (23.59)
Experimental	83	94.19 (26.22)	103.66 (24.34)	9.47 (29.64)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed a significant difference between the pre-WTC and the post-WTC of the Control Group, $t(59) = -3.09$; $p < .001$, and of the Experimental Group, $t(82) = -2.91$; $p < .001$. These results further confirm the suggestion in this section that the DUB approach does not hamper the learners' willingness to communicate in English, even though they did not practice speaking and pair/group work interaction during the program. The DUB can equally do a good job in increasing the level of willingness to communicate in English of the EFL learners. Table 4.15 displays the correlations between the pre-WTC and post-WTC of each group. Figure 4.15 shows the pre- and post- WTC scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

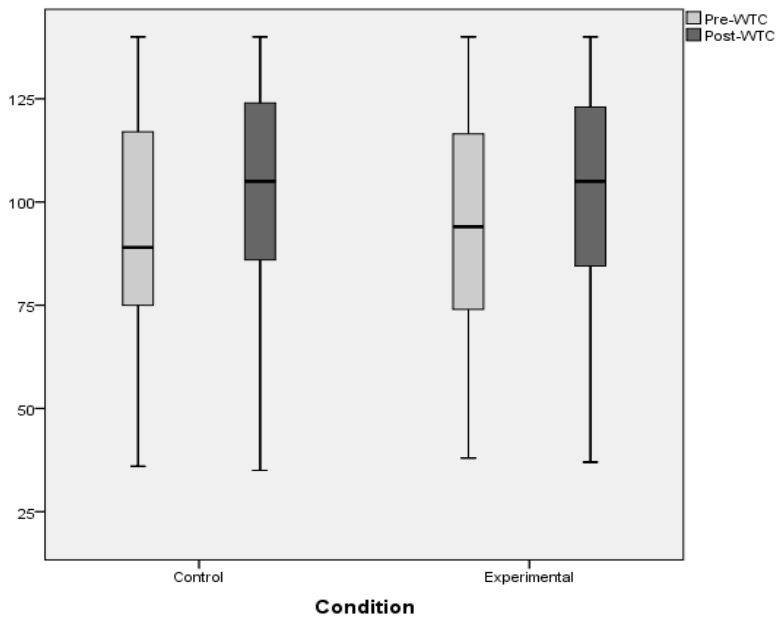

Figure 4:15: Pre- and Post- WTC Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

As can be seen in Table 4.14 participants in both groups had almost similar WTC gain scores. The Independent Samples t-Test revealed that the difference between the two groups was non-

significant, $t(141) = -.12$; = .99. This result indicates that experimental group participants who had no interaction during the language course were equally willing to communicate in English as their control group peers who had more interaction during the same semester.

4.1.7 Self-confidence

The reliability of the SC questionnaire proved to be acceptable with a value of .72 for Cronbach's α for the pre-SC and .77 for the post-SC. The histogram of the SC gain scores looked normal. A Pearson's correlations analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between pre-SC and post-SC, $r(141) = .43$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed), indicating that the more confident participants felt with English at the beginning of the course, the more confident they tended to feel at the end of the course. Table 4.16 shows the mean and standard deviation of SC gain scores of both groups.

Table 4.16: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-SC, Post-SC, and SC Gain of Control and Experimental Groups

Condition	N	Pre-SC Mean (SD)	Post-SC Mean (SD)	SC Gain Mean (SD)
Control	60	70.92 (21.07)	75.22 (23.09)	4.30 (22.79)
Experimental	83	63.07 (21.41)	78.72 (22.58)	15.65 (23.43)

Paired Samples t-Tests showed that the difference between the pre-SC and the post-SC of the Experimental Group was significant, $t(83) = -6.09$; $p < .001$, but the difference between the pre-SC and the post-SC of the Control Group was non-significant, $t(59) = -1.46$; $p = .15$. These results further confirm the suggestion in this section that the DUB approach seems to be more effective than the Task-based approach in increasing the level of confidence with English of the EFL learners. Figure 4.16 shows the pre- and post-SC scores of the Experimental Group.

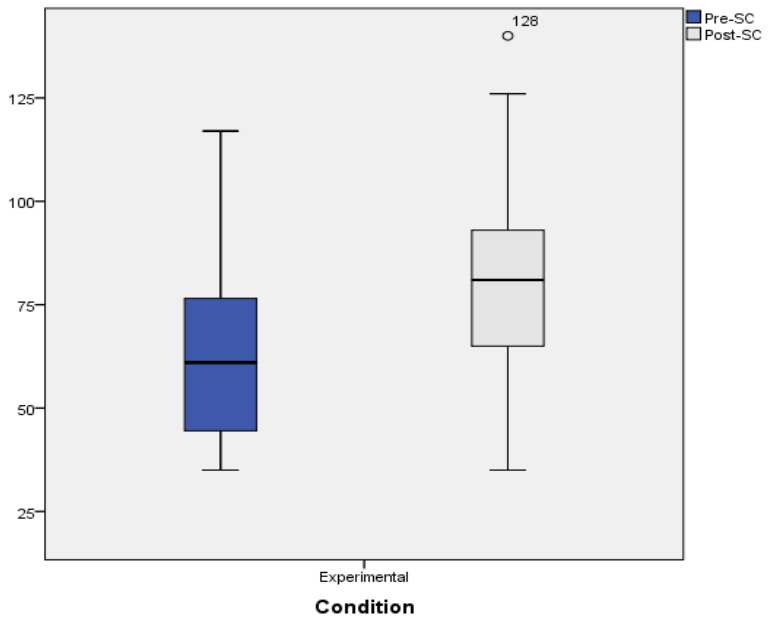

Figure 4.16: Pre-SC and Post-SC of Experimental Group

As can be seen in Table 4.16, experimental group participants gained higher than control group participants on SC at the end of the course. The Independent Samples t-Test revealed that the difference was significant, $t(141) = -2.89$; $p < .001$. This result indicates that the experimental group participants who had more exposure to authentic language during a semester became more confident in using English. Figure 4.9 shows pre- and post-SC scores of the Control and Experimental Groups. Figure 4.17 shows the SC gain scores of Control and Experimental Groups.

The size of the effect (the difference between the experimental and control conditions) was .50 SDs of the control group (Cohen's d). So, the effect of the new teaching method on SC showed to be quite moderate.

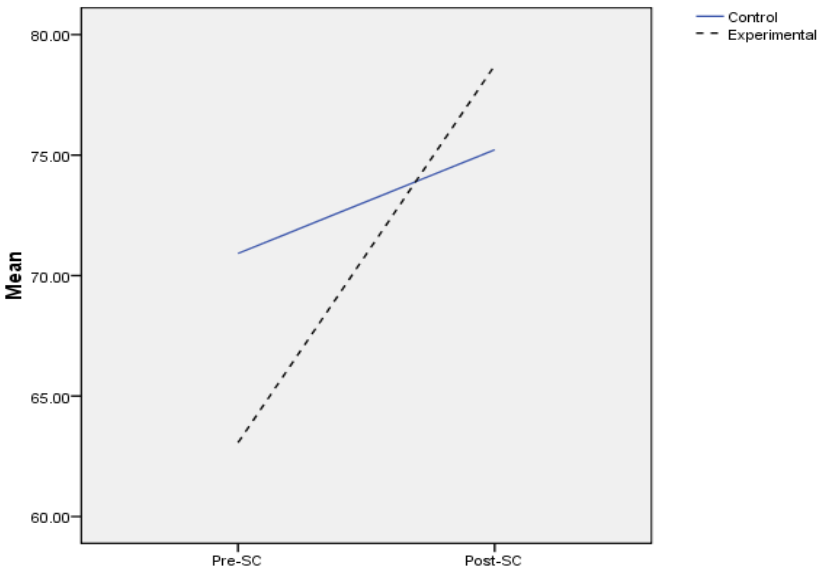

Figure 4.17: Increase in Average of Pre-SC and Post-SC of the Control and Experimental Groups

4.2 Results 2: Effects of the DUB program for Instructors A and B

Independent Samples t-Tests per teacher were computed to examine the effect of the condition on all the gain scores. Table 4.18 shows the means and standard deviations of the gain scores of all measures of Instructor A and Instructor B. Table 4.19 shows the t- and p-values that the tests delivered. The p-values were two-tailed. Significant differences (at the 10% level) were marked with an asterisk and in boldface. The differences in favor of the DUB program were marked with a plus sign (+). The differences in favor of the Task-based program were marked with a minus sign (-).

Table 4.18: Means and Standard Deviations of All Gain Scores of Instructor A and Instructor B

Variable	Instructor A				Instructor B			
	Class	N	Mean	SD	Class	N	Mean	SD
Receptive proficiency	C1	25	5.44	4.33	C2	18	7.78	6.53
	E1	26	11.04	8.34	E2+E4	54	9.81	5.32
Writing 1	C1	25	1.04	.74	C2	18	1.56	.88
	E1	26	1.07	1.09	E2+E4	54	1.61	.93
Writing 2	C1	25	1.30	1.11	C2	18	2.13	1.03
	E1	26	1.76	1.19	E2+E4	54	1.71	.87
Speaking	C1	16	.77	.73	C2	8	-.84	.95
	E1	17	.47	1.09	E2+E4	22	.94	1.00
Self-reported listening	C1	21	-.08	.67	C2	15	.40	.51
	E1	21	.43	.68	E2+E4	46	.28	.50
Self-reported speaking	C1	21	.24	.44	C2	15	.60	.63
	E1	21	.33	.48	E2+E4	46	.30	.63
Self-reported reading	C1	21	.14	.48	C2	15	.33	.62
	E1	21	.57	.51	E2+E4	46	.26	.61
Self-reported writing	C1	21	.10	.54	C2	15	.27	.46
	E1	21	.43	.75	E2+E4	46	.26	.65
Chunk 1	C1	25	.04	.20	C2	18	.13	.17
	E1	26	.13	.26	E2+E4	54	.14	.27
Chunk 2	C1	25	.15	.22	C2	18	.26	.16
	E1	26	.28	.24	E2+E4	54	.22	.23
WTC	C1	21	21.05	23.72	C2	16	8.06	13.33
	E1	22	5.32	29.00	E2+E4	48	10.42	29.76
SC	C1	21	3.90	27.63	C2	16	12.19	21.25
	E1	22	9.41	21.64	E2+E4	48	15.33	18.69

Table 4.19: T- and P- Values of Independent Samples t-Tests

Variable	Instructor A			Instructor B		
	t- value	**p- value**	**Effect of condition**	**t- value**	**p-value**	**Effect of condition**
Receptive proficiency	-3.026	**.004***	+	-1.328	.188	+
Writing 1	-.099	.922	+	-.170	.866	+
Writing 2	-1.406	.166	+	1.649	.104	-
Speaking	.905	.373	-	-4.359	**.000***	+
Self-reported listening	-2.294	**.027***	+	.785	.436	-
Self-reported speaking	-.670	.506	+	1.581	.119	-
Self-reported reading	-2.818	**.007***	+	.397	.693	-
Self-reported writing	-1.659	.106	+	.032	.975	-
Chunk 1	-1.468	.148	+	-.228	.820	-
Chunk 2	-2.024	**.048***	+	.640	.524	-
WTC	1.941	**.059***	-	-.433	.667	+
SC	-.729	.470	+	-.564	.575	+

Note. A negative t-value means the experimental group scored higher. A positive t-value means the control group scored higher.

As can be seen in Table 4.19, significant differences were found in six measures in total. Only one of them (WTC) was in favor of the Task-based program. The other five measures were in favor of the DUB program (four for Instructor A, and one for Instructor B). With more significant differences in favor of the DUB program, these results suggest that both teachers

generally taught better (or at least not worse) with the experimental program than with the control program.

4.3 Results 3: Effects of the DUB program for all the experimental classes

A one-way ANOVA on the receptive GEP scores of experimental classes E1, E2, E3 and E4 showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 90) = .26$; $p = .85$. This means that there was no difference between the four experimental classes in their initial proficiency levels. Thus, the null hypothesis that there was a significant difference between the initial proficiency levels for the four experimental classes was rejected. For descriptive statistics of pretest proficiency scores of Experimental Classes, see Table 4.1.

4.3.1 General (receptive) proficiency

The Pearson's correlation between receptive GEP pre-test and receptive GEP post-test scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(94) = .47$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.20 displays means and standard deviations of receptive proficiency gain scores of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.20: Means and Standard Deviations of Proficiency Gain Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pretest Mean (SD)	Posttest Mean (SD)	Proficiency Gain Mean (SD)
E1	26	14.35 (6.05)	25.38 (7.47)	11.0 (8.34)
E2	29	13.38 (5.40)	24.97 (6.93)	11.59 (5.19)
E4	25	14.04 (6.11)	21.80 (5.49)	7.76 (4.77)
E3	14	14.86 (3.68)	22.43 (5.76)	7.57 (5.42)
Total	94	14.04 (5.51)	23.86 (6.66)	9.82 (6.33)

Looking at the means of the gain, we can see that Classes E1 and E2 had similar gains in receptive general proficiency and that they gained much more than Classes E3 and E4, both of which also had similar gains in receptive general proficiency. A one-way ANOVA on proficiency gain scores of Classes E1, E2, E3 and E4 was computed. The result showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 90) = 2.68$; $p = .051$. These results suggest that Instructors A and B performed as well as Instructor C with regard to receptive general proficiency. This indicates that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to general receptive proficiency. These results also suggest that different teachers could work equally well with the new teaching approach (the DUB approach).

4.3.2 Writing

4.3.2.1 Writing gain score 1

The Pearson's correlation between pre-writing and post-writing scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(94) = .41$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.21 displays means and standard deviations of pre-writing, post-writing and writing gain scores 1 of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.21: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Writing, Post-Writing, and Writing Gain Scores 1 of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-writing Mean (SD)	Post-writing Mean (SD)	Writing Gain 1 Mean (SD)
E1	26	1.30 (1.15)	2.37 (.78)	1.07 (1.09)
E2	29	.98 (.91)	2.40 (.99)	1.42 (.91)
E3	14	1.40 (.85)	2.49 (.66)	1.09 (.84)
E4	25	.70 (.98)	2.52 (.50)	1.82 (.93)
Total	94	1.05 (1.01)	2.43 (.77)	1.38 (.99)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Classes E1 and E3 had similar gains in writing and that they gained rather less or much less than Classes E3 and E4, respectively. A one-way ANOVA on writing gain scores 1 of Classes E1, E2, E3 and E4 was computed. The result showed that the between-groups differences were significant, $F(3, 90) = 3.14$; $p = .029$. This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed differently on writing. This suggests that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, seemed to be biased in their teaching of each condition. That is, they might have tried to teach better in their experimental class.

However, Post-hoc analyses for writing gain scores 1 using the Bonferroni correction revealed a significant difference between Class E1 (of Instructor A) and Class E4 (of Instructor B), $p = .036$. There were no significant differences in writing gain score 1 between the other three experimental classes, $p = 1.0$ for E1 and E2; $p = 1.0$ for E1 and E3; $p = 1.0$ for E2 and E3; $p = .75$ for E2 and E4; $p = .15$ for E3 and E4. These results show that Instructors A and B performed equally well on their experimental classes as Instructor C did, who taught an experimental class only, with regard to writing. These results show that although Instructor B did a better job in comparison to Instructor A with regard to writing, both teachers did not seem to be in favor of teaching their experimental classes because they both performed equally well compared to Instructor C, who taught an experimental class only.

4.3.2.2 Writing gain score 2

The Pearson's correlation between pre-writing and exam-writing scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(94) = .42$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.22 displays means and standard deviations of pre-writing, exam-writing, and writing gain scores 2 of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.22: Means and Standard Deviations of Writing Gain Scores 2 of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-writing Mean (SD)	Exam-writing Mean (SD)	Writing Gain 2 Mean (SD)
E1	26	1.30 (1.15)	3.06 (.77)	1.76 (1.19)
E2	29	.98 (.91)	2.60 (.85)	1.62 (.83)
E3	14	1.40 (.85)	3.23 (.40)	1.83 (1.01)
E4	25	.70 (.98)	2.52 (.60)	1.83 (.93)
Total	94	1.05 (1.01)	2.80 (.76)	1.74 (.98)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Classes E1, E2, E3 and E4 had similar writing gain scores 2. A one-way ANOVA on writing gain scores 2 of the four classes was computed. The result showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 90) = .256$; $p = .86$. This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed equally well on writing. This suggests that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to the writing skill.

4.3.3 Speaking

The Pearson's correlation between pre-speaking and post-speaking scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(44) = .59$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.23 displays means and standard deviations of speaking gain scores of the four experimental classes. Looking at the means, we can see that Classes E1 and E3 had scores approximately at least twice smaller than those of Classes E2 and E4.

Table 4.23: Means and Standard Deviations of Speaking Gain Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-speaking Mean (SD)	Post-speaking Mean (SD)	Speaking Gain Mean (SD)
E1	17	2.00 (1.33)	2.47 (1.09)	.47 (1.09)
E2	16	1.06 (1.21)	1.94 (1.16)	.88 (1.02)
E3	5	1.70 (.45)	2.10 (.52)	.40 (.58)
E4	6	1.38 (.38)	2.50 (.90)	1.13 (1.05)
Total	44	1.54 (1.77)	2,24 (1.05)	.70 (1.02)

However, a one-way ANOVA on the speaking gain scores of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 40) = .94$; $p = .43$, probably due to high SDs. This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed equally well on speaking. This suggests that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to the speaking skill.

4.3.4 Self-reported proficiency

The Pearson's correlation between pre-self-reported scores and post-self-reported scores of the four language skills of the four experimental classes were found to be significant (two-tailed), $r(58) = .39$; $p < .001$ (for listening); $r(58) = .48$; $p < .001$ (for speaking); $r(58) = .61$; $p < .001$ (for reading); and $r(58) = .30$; $p < .001$ (for writing). Table 4.24 displays means and standard deviations of pre-scores, post-scores, and gain scores of the four experimental classes in self-reported listening, self-reported speaking, self-reported reading, and self-reported writing.

Table 4.24: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Scores, Post-Scores, and Gain Scores of Four Self-Reported Language Skills of Experimental Classes

Self-reported language skills	Class	N	Pre-skill Mean (SD)	Post-skill Mean (SD)	Gain scores Mean (SD)
Listening	E1	21	1.43 (.51)	1.86 (.57)	.43 (.68)
	E2	28	1.39 (.50)	1.68 (.55)	.29 (.54)
	E3	13	1.54 (.52)	2.08 (.64)	.54 (.78)
	E4	18	1.61 (61)	1.89 (.47)	.28 (.46)
	Total	80	1.48 (.53)	1.84 (.56)	.36 (.60)
Speaking	E1	21	1.62 (.50)	1.95 (.38)	.33 (.48)
	E2	28	1.34 (.51)	1.82 (.61)	.29 (.66)
	E3	13	1.62 (.51)	2.08 (.49)	.46 (.52)
	E4	18	1.94 (.64)	2.28 (.67)	.33 (.59)
	Total	80	1.67 (.55)	2.00 (.57)	.34 (.57)
Reading	E1	21	1.81 (.40)	2.38 (.59)	.57 (.51)
	E2	28	2.00 (.82)	2.29 (.85)	.29 (.66)
	E3	13	2.31 (.63)	2.46 (.52)	.15 (.55)
	E4	18	2.06 (.64)	2.28 (.57)	.22 (.55)
	Total	80	2.01 (.67)	2.34 (.67)	.33 (.59)
Writing	E1	21	1.57 (.60)	2.00 (.63)	.57 (.51)
	E2	28	1.61 (.57)	1.86 (.65)	.29 (.66)
	E3	13	1.69 (.48)	2.08 (.49)	.15 (.55)
	E4	18	2.67 (.49)	1.94 (.54)	.22 (.55)
	Total	80	1.63 (.54)	1.96 (.59)	.33 (.67)

A one-way ANOVA on the gain score of each skill of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 76) = .72$; $p = .54$ (for the self-reported listening); $F(3, 76) = .27$; $p = .85$ (for the self-reported speaking); $F(3, 76) = 1.87$; $p = .14$ (for the self-reported reading); and $F(3, 76) = .34$; $p = .80$ (for the self-reported writing). This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed equally well on the four self-reported language skills, suggesting that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be biased in their teaching of each condition, relating to self-reported language skills.

4.3.5 Chunks

4.3.5.1 Post-chunk scores

The Pearson's correlation between pre-chunk and post-chunk scores of the three control classes was found to be non-significant, $r(94) = .13$; $p = .20$ (two-tailed). Due to this, post-chunk scores were used as the dependent variable, instead of the gain scores. Table 4.25 displays means and standard deviations of pre-chunk and post-chunk scores of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.25: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Chunk and Post-Chunk Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-Chunk Mean (SD)	Post-Chunk Mean (SD)
E1	26	1.59 (.15)	.25 (.12)
E2	29	.23 (.18)	.29 (.11)
E3	14	.24 (.14)	.23 (.06)
E4	25	.10 (.16)	.28 (.12)
Total	94	.18 (.17)	.27 (.11)

Looking at the means, we can see that the four experimental classes more or less had similar post-chunk scores. A one-way ANOVA analyses of the post-chunk scores of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 90) = 1.20$; $p = .32$. These results indicate that the four experimental classes performed equally well on chunks and therefore that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, performed as well as Instructor C, who taught an experimental class only, relating to chunks. This suggests that Instructors A and B did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to chunks.

4.3.5.2 Exam-chunk scores

The Pearson's correlation between pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores of the four experimental classes was found to be non-significant, $r(94) = -.04$; $p = .73$ (two-tailed). Due to this, exam-chunk scores were used as the dependent variable, instead of the gain scores. Table 4.26

displays means and standard deviations of pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores the four experimental classes.

Table 4.26: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Chunk and Exam-Chunk Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-Chunk Mean (SD)	Exam-Chunk Mean (SD)
E1	26	1.59 (.15)	.40 (.14)
E2	29	.23 (.18)	.41 (.14)
E3	14	.24 (.14)	.43 (.11)
E4	25	.10 (.16)	.38 (.14)
Total	94	.18 (.17)	40 (.13)

Looking at the means, we can see that the four classes had more or less similar post-chunk scores. A one-way ANOVA analysis of the exam-chunk scores of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 90) = .44$; $p = .73$. These results indicate that the four experimental classes performed equally well on chunks and therefore that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, performed as well as Instructor C, who taught an experimental class only, relating to chunks. This suggests that Instructors A and B did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to chunks.

4.3.6 Willingness to communicate

The Pearson's correlation between pre-WTC and post-WTC scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(83) = .31$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.27 displays means and standard deviations of pre-WTC, post-WTC, and WTC gain scores of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.27: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-WTC, Post-WTC, WTC Gain Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-WTC Mean (SD)	Post-WTC Mean (SD)	WTC Gain Mean (SD)
E1	22	104.00 (23.94)	109.32 (29.01)	5,32 (29,01)
E2	25	87.00 (25.61)	92.56 (30.97)	5,56 (30,97)
E3	13	96.77 (30.01)	109.77 (31.85)	13,00 (31,85)
E4	23	91.17 (25.28)	106.87 (28.12)	15,70 (28,12)
Total	83	94.19 (26.22)	103.66 (29.64)	9,47 (29,64)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Classes E3 and E4 gained more than twice higher than Classes E1 and E2. However, a one-way ANOVA on the WTC gain scores of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant,

$F(3, 79) = .68$; $p = .57$. This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed equally well on WTC, suggesting that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to willingness to communicate.

4.3.7 Self-confidence

The Pearson's correlation between pre-SC and post-SC scores of the four experimental classes was found to be significant, $r(83) = .43$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.28 displays means and standard deviations of pre-SC, post-SC, and SC gain scores of the four experimental classes.

Table 4.28: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-SC, Post-SC, and SC Gain Scores of Experimental Classes

Class	N	Pre-SC Mean (SD)	Post-SC Mean (SD)	SC Gain Mean (SD)
E1	22	73.55 (21.68)	82.95 (21.84)	9.41 (21.64)
E2	25	56.24 (19.65)	70.68 (24.09)	14.44 (21.25)
E3	13	64.23 (23.91)	91.62 (24.00)	27.38 (36.62)
E4	23	59.83 (18.75)	76.13 (17.35)	16.30 (15.87)
Total	83	63.07 (21.41)	78.72 (22.58)	15.65 (23.43)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Classes E3 gained the most and that it gained nearly three times higher than Class E1, which gained the least. However, a one-way ANOVA on the SC gain scores of the four classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(3, 79) = 1.68$; $p = .18$. This result indicates that the four experimental classes performed equally well on SC, suggesting that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to self- confidence.

4.4 Results 4: Effects of the Task-based program for all the control classes

A one-way ANOVA on pre-test proficiency scores of control classes C1, C2, and C3 showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(2, 66) = 1.45$; $p = .24$. This means that there was no difference between the three control classes in their initial proficiency levels. Thus, the null hypothesis that there was a significant difference between the initial proficiency levels for the three control classes was rejected.

4.4.1 General (receptive) proficiency

The Pearson's correlation between receptive GEP pre-test and receptive GEP post-test scores of the three control classes was found to be significant, $r(69) = .60$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 4.29 displays means and standard deviations of the receptive GEP pre-test, receptive GEP post-test, and receptive GEP gain scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.29: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-test, Post-test, and Proficiency Gain Scores of Control Classes

Class	N	Pretest Mean (SD)	Posttest Mean (SD)	Proficiency Gain Mean (SD)
C1	25	12.52 (4.32)	17.96 (6.22)	5.4 (4.3)
C2	18	13.11 (5.42)	20.89 (5.95)	7.8 (6.5)
C3	26	10.58 (6.01)	15.73 (6.28)	5.2 (5.3)
Total	69	11.94 (5.33)	17.88 (6.42)	5.9 (5.4)

A one-way ANOVA on general receptive proficiency gain scores of Classes C1, C2, and C3 was computed. The result showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(2, 66) = 1.46$; $p = .24$. This result shows that all three control classes performed equally well on general proficiency after the course of the study, indicating that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, performed equally well on their control classes as Instructor C did with regard to general proficiency. In other words, Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased in their teaching of the control class.

4.4.2 Writing

4.4.2.1 Writing gain score

The Pearson's correlation between pre-writing and post-writing scores of the three control classes was found to be significant, $r(69) = .36$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.30 presents the means and standard deviations of pre-writing, post-writing, and writing gain scores 1 of control classes, showing that Class C3 gained twice lower than Class C2, which still gained higher than Class C1.

Table 4.30: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-writing, Post-Writing, and Writing Gain Scores 1 of Control Classes

Class	N	Pre-writing Mean (SD)	Post-writing Mean (SD)	Writing Gain Mean (SD)
C1	25	1.24 (.65)	2.28 (.66)	1.04 (.74)
C2	18	1,28 (1.02)	2.84 (.63)	1.56 (.88)
C3	26	1.04 (.87)	1.75 (.92)	.71 (1.10)
Total	69	1.17 (.84)	2.22 (0.87)	1.05 (.97)

A one-way ANOVA on writing gain scores 1 of Classes C1, C2, and C3 showed that the between-groups differences were significant, $F(2, 66) = 4.55$; $p = .014$. This result suggests that Instructors A and B were biased in their teaching with regard to the writing skill.

Post-hoc analyses for writing gain scores 1 using the Bonferroni correction revealed a significant difference only between C2 and C3, $p = .01$, indicating that C2 performed significantly better than C3 on writing. No significant differences in writing were found between C1 and C2, $p = .21$; or between C1 and C3, $p = .62$. These results show that both C1 and C2 performed equally well or even better than C3 in writing, meaning that both Instructors A and B performed equally well or even better on their control class than Instructor C with regard to writing skills. This indicated that Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased in teaching their control classes as far as writing was involved.

4.4.2.2 Exam-writing scores

The correlation between pre-SC and post-SC scores of the three control classes was found to be non-significant, $r(69) = .09$; $p = .48$. Thus, the exam-writing score, rather than the gain score between the exam-writing scores and the pre-writing scores, was used as the dependent variable. Table 4.31 presents the means and standard deviations of pre-writing and exam-writing scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.31: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Writing and Exam-Writing Scores of Control Classes

Class	N	Pre-writing Mean (SD)	Exam-writing Mean (SD)
C1	25	1.24 (.65)	2.65 (.71)
C2	18	1,28 (1.02)	3.40 (.50)
C3	26	1.04 (.87)	3.07 (.57)
Total	69	1.17 (.84)	3.00 (.67)

A one-way ANOVA on exam-writing scores of Classes C1, C2, and C3 showed that the between-groups differences were significant, $F(2, 65) = 8.24$; $p < .001$. This result suggested that Instructors A and B were biased in their teaching with regard to the writing skill.

Post-hoc analyses for exam-writing scores using the Bonferroni correction revealed significant differences between C1 and C2, $p < .001$; between C1 and C3, $p = .049$ and no significant differences between C2 and C3, $p = .23$. This result indicates that Instructor A seemed to be negatively biased in teaching their control classes as far as writing was involved. Figure 4.18 shows the pre-writing and exam-writing scores of the three Control Classes.

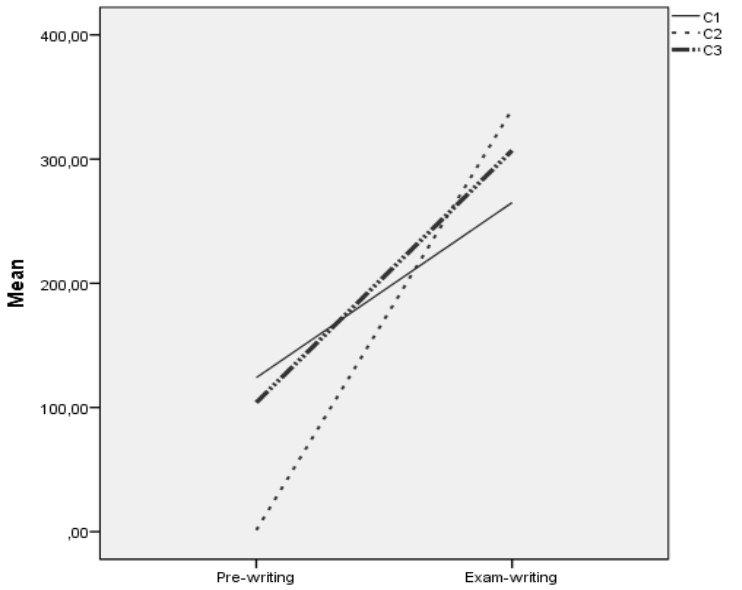

Figure 4.18: Pre-writing and Exam-writing Scores of Three Control Classes

4.4.3 Speaking

The Pearson's correlation between pre-speaking and post-speaking scores of the three control classes was found to be significant, $r(27) = .62$; $p < .001$ (two-tailed). Table 4.32 presents the means and standard deviations of pre-speaking, post-speaking, and speaking gain scores of control classes.

Table 4.32: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Speaking, Post-Speaking, and Speaking Gain Scores of Control Classes

Class	N	Pre-speaking Mean (SD)	Post-speaking Mean (SD)	Speaking Gain Mean (SD)
C1	16	.91 (.86)	1.67 (.94)	.77 (.73)
C2	8	3.03 (.83)	2.19 (.75)	-.84 (.95)
C3	3	3.00 (.50)	3.17 (.76)	.17 (.29)
Total	27	1.77 (1.32)	1.99 (.97)	.22 (1.01)

A one-way ANOVA on the gain score of Classes C1, C2, and C3 showed that the between-groups differences were significant, $F(2, 24) = 11.37$; $p < .001$. This result suggests that Instructors A and B were biased in their teaching with regard to the speaking skill.

Post-hoc analyses for speaking gain scores using the Bonferroni correction revealed that only the difference between C1 and C2 was significant at $p < .001$, indicating that C1 performed significantly better than C2 on speaking. No significant differences in speaking were

found between C1 and C3, p = .70, showing that Instructors A did not seem to be biased in her teaching of the control class, in comparison to Instructor D; and between C2 and C3, p = .20, showing that Instructor B did not seem to be biased in her teaching of the control class, in comparison to Instructor D. Altogether, these results suggest that both Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased in teaching their control classes as far as speaking was involved.

4.4.4 Self-reported proficiency

The Pearson's correlations between pre-self-reported scores and post-self-reported scores of the four language skills of the three control classes were found to be significant (two-tailed), $r(58) = .41$; $p < .001$ (for listening); $r(58) = .42$; $p < .001$ (for speaking); $r(58) = .68$; $p < .001$ (for reading); and $r(58) = .55$; $p < .001$ (for writing). Table 4.33 displays means and standard deviations of pre-scores, post-scores, and gain scores of the three control classes in self-reported listening, self-reported speaking, self-reported reading, and self-reported writing.

A one-way ANOVA on each perceived language skill for the three classes showed that the between-groups differences were significant only for the reported listening skill, $F(2, 55) = 3.36$; p = .04. There were no significant differences between the three control classes in self-reported speaking, $F(2, 55) = 2.60$; p = .08, self-reported reading, $F(2, 55) = .31$; p = .74, and self-reported writing $F(2, 55) = .52$; p = .60.

Post-hoc analyses for self-reported listening gain scores for the three control classes using the Bonferroni correction revealed that only the difference between C2 and C3 was significant at p = .04. This result indicates that C2 performed significantly better than C3 on perceived listening, which meant that the teacher of C2 (Instructor B) did not seem to be negatively biased in her teaching of the control class, in comparison to the teacher of Class C3 (Instructor D). No significant differences in self-reported listening were found between C1 and C2, p = .30, showing that Instructor A and Instructor B performed equally well on their control classes with regard to self-reported listening. Altogether, it can be seen that both Instructors A and B did not seem to be biased in teaching their control classes as far as self-reported proficiency was involved.

Table 4.33: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Scores, Post-Scores, and Gain Scores of Four Self-Reported Language Skills of Control Classes

Self-reported language skills	Class	N	Pre-skill Mean (SD)	Post-skill Mean (SD)	Gain scores Mean (SD)
Listening	C1	21	1.90 (.70)	1.95 (.22)	.05 (.74)
	C2	15	1.60 (.63)	2.00 (.38)	.40 (.51)
	C2	22	1.55 (.60)	1.41 (.59)	-.14 (.56)
	Total	58	1.69 (.65)	1.76 (.51)	.07 (.65)
Speaking	C1	21	1.86 (.36)	2.14 (.36)	.29 (.46)
	C2	15	1.60 (.51)	2.20 (.56)	.60 (.63)
	C2	22	1.59 (.73)	1.73 (.70)	.14 (.71)
	Total	58	1.70 (.57)	2.00 (.59)	.31 (63)
Reading	C1	21	2.43 (.60)	2.67 (.48)	.24 (.54)
	C2	15	2.13 (.64)	2.47 (.64)	.33 (.62)
	C2	22	1.82 (.73)	2.00 (.82)	.18 (.59)
	Total	58	2.12 (.70)	2.36 (.72)	.24 (.57)
Writing	C1	21	2.10 (.62)	2.29 (.46)	.19 (.68)
	C2	15	1.87 (.64)	2.13 (.64)	.27 (.46)
	C2	22	1.55 (.80)	1.59 (.73)	.05 (.79)
	Total	58	1.83 (.73)	1.98 (.69)	.16 (.67)

4.4.5 Chunks

4.4.5.1 Post-chunk scores

The Pearson's correlation between pre-chunk and post-chunk scores of the three control classes was found to be non-significant, $r(69) = -.06$; $p = .63$ (two-tailed). Therefore, post-chunk scores were used as the dependent variable, instead of the gain scores. Table 4.34 displays means and standard deviations of pre-chunk and post-chunk scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.34: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Chunk and Post-Chunk Scores of Control Classes.

Class	N	Pre-chunk Mean (SD)	Post-chunk Mean (SD)
C1	25	.25 (.16)	.29 (.09)
C2	18	.18 (.17)	.31 (.09)
C3	26	.18 (.16)	.25 (.15)
Total	69	.21 (.16)	.28 (.12)

Looking at the mean of the post-chunk scores, we can see that the three control classes more or less had similar scores. A one-way ANOVA analysis of the post-chunk scores of the three control classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(2, 66) = 1.64$; $p = .20$. These results indicate that the three control classes performed equally well on chunks. This means that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, performed as well as Instructor D, who taught a control class only, relating to chunks. Thus, they did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the control class relating to chunks.

4.4.5.2 Exam-chunk scores

The Pearson's correlation between pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores of the three control classes was found to be non-significant, $r(69) = .16$; $p = .19$ (two-tailed). Therefore, exam-chunk scores were used as the dependent variable, instead of the gain scores. Table 4.35 displays pre-chunk and exam-chunk scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.35: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-chunk and Exam-chunk Scores of Control Classes.

Class	N	Pre-chunk Mean (SD)	Exam-chunk Mean (SD)
C1	25	.25 (.16)	.40 (.14)
C2	18	.18 (.17)	.44 (.09)
C3	26	.18 (.16)	.41 (.09)
Total	69	.21 (.16)	.42 (.11)

Looking at the mean of the exam-chunk scores, we can see that the three control classes had similar scores. A one-way ANOVA analysis of the exam-chunk scores of the three control classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(2, 66) = .69$; $p = .51$. These results indicate that the three control classes performed equally well on chunks. This means that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, performed as well as Instructor D, who taught a control class only, relating to chunks. Thus, they did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the control class relating to chunks.

4.4.6 Willingness to communicate

The correlation between pre-WTC and post-WTC scores of the three control classes was found to be significant, $r(60) = .60$; $p < .001$. Table 4.36 displays means and standard deviations of pre-WTC, post-WTC, and WTC gain scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.36: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-WTC, Post-WTC, and WTC Gain Scores of Control Classes

Class	N	Pre-WTC Mean (SD)	Post-WTC Mean (SD)	WTC Gain Mean (SD)
C1	21	89.52 (27.80)	110.57 (20.01)	21,0476 (23.72)
C2	16	92.81 (24.86)	100.88 (22.61)	8,0625 (13.33)
C3	23	97.96 (27.12)	97.70 (30.61)	-,2609 (25.13)
Total	60	93.63 (26.58)	103.05 (25.45)	9,4167 (13.59)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Class C1 gained 13 points more than Class C2, which in turn gained more than 8 points than Class C3. A one-way ANOVA on the WTC gain scores of the three classes showed that the between-groups differences were significant, $F(2, 57) = 5.15$; $p < .001$. This result indicates that the three control classes performed differently on WTC. This suggests that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, seemed to be favorably biased in their teaching of the control class as far as willingness to communicate is concerned.

Post-hoc analyses for WTC gain scores for the three control classes using the Bonferroni correction revealed that the difference between only C1 and C2 was significant at $p < .001$. This result indicates that Class C2 performed significantly better than C3 on WTC, which meant that the teacher of Class C2 (Instructor B) did not seem to be negatively biased in her teaching of the control class, in comparison to the teacher of Class C3 (Instructor D). Altogether, it can be seen that both Instructors A and B did not seem to be favorably biased in teaching their control classes.

4.4.7 Self-confidence

The correlation between pre-SC and post-SC scores of the three control classes was found to be significant, $r(60) = .47$; $p < .001$. Table 4.37 displays means and standard deviations of pre-SC, post-SC, and SC gain scores of the three control classes.

Table 4.37: Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-SC, Post-SC, and SC Gain Scores of Control Classes

Class	N	Pre-SC Mean (SD)	Post-SC Mean (SD)	SC Gain Mean (SD)
C1	21	73.05 (19.89)	76.95 (25.49)	3.90 (27.63)
C2	16	75.56 (24.55)	87.75 (21.15)	12.19 (21.25)
C3	23	65.74 (19.30)	64.91 (17.48)	-.83 (17.83)
Total	60	70.92 (21.07)	75.22 (23.09)	4.30 (22.79)

Looking at the means of the gain score, we can see that Class C2 gained more than four points higher than Class C1, which in turn gained nearly five points higher than Class C3.

However, a one-way ANOVA on the SC gain scores of the three classes showed that the between-groups differences were non-significant, $F(2, 57) = 1.57$; $p = .22$. This result indicates that the three control classes performed equally well on SC. This suggests that Instructors A and B, who taught both conditions, did not seem to be favorably biased in their teaching of the experimental class, relating to self-confidence.

4.5 Summary

The results suggested that the movie program benefited the learners in several ways. Analysis 1 showed that the experimental group gained significantly more than the control group on general proficiency and SC and that both groups performed equally well on WTC. With regard to speaking, both groups performed equally well even though the experimental group did not practice speaking at all. For writing, the experimental group significantly gained more than the control group when the gain between pre- and post-writing scores was used and equally well as the control group when the gain between pre- and exam-writing scores was used. In terms of self-reported proficiency, as can be expected, the experimental group which was exposed to more listening gained more in self-evaluation on listening than the control group. Both groups self-evaluated their other language skills (speaking, reading, and writing) equally well.

In addition, as results from Analyses 2 – 4 suggest, both Instructors A and B performed better with the experimental program and neither of them seemed to be biased in their teaching towards the control and experimental conditions, except for one variable (writing) where Instructor A seemed to be unfavorably biased in teaching writing to her control class. This suggests that the DUB approach itself, which emphasizes the use of authentic language input and offers it in a recurrent pattern, can be beneficial for the learners. In other words, it may be assumed that the DUB approach will work well with different teachers, provided that they follow the DUB principles that allow for the use of authentic input and input frequency with a focus on meaning rather than forms.

Yet, the movie or DUB program did not yield significantly better results in all analyses. In terms of the use of chunks, both groups gained the same. Although the Experimental Group

received more authentic spoken input, which was full of authentic chunks, and more chunk-awareness, they did not produce significantly more chunks than the Control group.

Chapter 5
Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, I first summarize the results of the current study and, with a dynamic usage-based perspective, try to discuss why a DUB approach to second language teaching could result in some positive results. Explanations for non-positive results are also given. After that, I suggest some pedagogical implications. Finally, I point out some limitations of the study and make some suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of the study

The main goal of the current study was to see if teaching English as a Foreign Language at Can Tho University could be improved because the current communicative task-based inspired method was not felt to be as effective as it could be. In Vietnam, college graduates are considered not proficient enough in English for future employment in international environments, despite several English courses at university level (Thanh Ha, 2008). Several researchers (B. Nguyen and Crabbe, 2000; Pham, 2000) have pointed to the lack of authentic input as one of the possible causes. Of course, the Vietnamese situation is not unique. There are many countries in which learners do not receive a great deal of authentic input in the L2, and not only in Asia. In European countries such as the Netherlands, where English can be heard regularly in the media, traditional L2 teaching in school consists mainly of talking about the language in the L1 and students receive very little authentic L2 input (Bonnet, 2002).

Inspired by dynamic systems principles and a usage-based view of language, an English course was developed for a group of first and second year university learners who could be considered false beginners. Their English level is estimated to be at the A1 CEFR level. The course included a high degree of meaningful input provided by a popular English movie. The movie was cut in scenes of 2–3 minutes and repeatedly shown in steps, with the teacher scaffolding until the learners understood everything that was said between the characters. In one of the steps, the instructor would read the lines slowly and articulate them carefully and explain or elaborate on form-meaning mappings of constructions at all levels. Although there was no explicit explanation of grammar rules, that does not mean there was no focus on form. There was a great deal of implicit focus on form-meaning pairs at all levels: word, phrase, chunk, conventionalized expressions, idioms, and sentence patterns, all presented aurally in the context of real "usage events" with their L2 cultural and pragmatic features. The aim was to revisit the language used in each scene about eight times to be sure the students were frequently exposed to the language. It took almost the whole course to discuss one movie.

The current study compared the gain scores in both receptive and productive English proficiency and in self-reported English proficiency of a control group and an experimental

group over a 12 or 15 week intervention. The control group was taught with a task-based inspired course developed by the university English teachers, which focused on form, interaction and output, with a low level of input. The experimental group was taught with authentic input and although there was room for natural interaction when students had questions or when a role-playing activity took place, there was no further focus on output. Most of the time was spent on narrow listening and the main goal was to help students understand everything that was said in the movie.

The results were quite convincing. Even though both groups improved in English proficiency between the pre and post-tests, the experimental group had significantly higher gain scores on the receptive General English Proficiency test and on the productive writing test. On the productive speaking test, a strong tendency was found in favor of the experimental group. As far as the self-reported proficiency was concerned, as can be expected, the experimental group significantly gained higher scores on the self-reported listening skill. It gained as many scores as the control group did in the other three self-reported language skills (speaking, reading, and writing).

In addition to general proficiency, the study compared the gain scores in WTC and SC of both groups. The results were also convincing. They showed that the experimental (DUB) group significantly gained more confidence at the end of the study than the control (CLT) group, and that the former gained as much willingness to communicate in English as the latter even though they were not trained to speak or write in English during the DUB program.

Yet, when it came to chunks, the DUB approach was not able to succeed in the period of time observed. It had been expected that when exposed to more authentic input where there was a lot of formulaic language and conventional ways of saying things, the DUB learners would have acquired more chunks. However, as can be observed from previous studies (e.g., Smiskova & Verspoor, 2012), being able to produce chunks takes a lot of time and requires a great deal of input exposure. The DUB participants in the current study took the program for only one academic semester and thus did not have time to significantly increase the number of chunks they were able to produce in comparison to the control group in their written post-test compositions. Each group used as many chunks as the other.

5.2 Discussion

The current study set out to investigate if a great deal of exposure to input and explanations to make the input comprehensible could benefit EFL learners in gaining more general proficiency, chunks, WTC, and SC. As could be expected, the findings showed that those students who learnt English in this input-rich and listening-focused condition (i.e. the DUB or experimental condition) significantly gained more in receptive general proficiency, speaking, and linguistic self-confidence compared to those who learnt English with a focus on all the four language skills together with grammar, but with less exposure to authentic target language (i.e. the task-based or control condition). The findings also showed that the DUB students tended to perform better in speaking, which went beyond expectations as they did not practice speaking during the

program. In terms of willingness to communicate, the DUB and the task-based learners gained equally on willingness to communicate at the end of the study. An unexpected result was the use of chunks of the DUB learners, as, although their use of chunks did increase, they did not gain significantly more than the Task-based students.

5.2.1 Explanation of positive effects

The main question is what contributed most to the positive effects. Taking a dynamic usage-based perspective, we will argue that it is not possible to point to one single factor, but a combination of interacting factors (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011).

First of all, the current approach is very much like many of the earlier CLT approaches in that it is based on the strong assumption that learners need to have been exposed to language forms and their meanings before they can be produced in some natural conversation. There is no denying that output and interaction are also important in language development, but many current approaches seem to have thrown out the baby (input) with the bathwater (earlier views on CLT). Nord noticed that practicing talking skills was beginning to be considered less important than meaningful listening, as it is the latter that helps build a "[…] map of meaning in the mind" (Nord, 1980, cited in Nation 1985:17). This idea can be linked back to Dynamic Systems Theory, which argues that the language learning system is a complex one consisting of many subsystems of different language aspects which all interact and develop over time. When looking at the current study, it can be seen that the DUB students were given many more opportunities to practice meaningful listening. This helps to explain why they benefited more as second language learners.

Secondly, the current approach is based on the assumption that frequency of occurrence is one of the strongest determiners for what is acquired. Therefore, it focuses not only on meaningful input, but it also makes sure the learners revisit the same form-meaning pairs often enough so that they can be committed to memory to some degree. It is important to note that repetition of the movie scenes does not result in mere rote mimicking from the learners, as each time the learners are exposed to the same authentic input the meaning becomes clearer and their language system reorganizes somewhat. This reorganization occurs as scaffolding and explanation are provided which help them to understand more with each subsequent viewing. Therefore, instead of repetition, the DUB approach should be seen as iteration. Iteration refers to a repetitive movement within a system which results in a change after each movement, be it in speed or direction. Eventually the learner's output will be positively affected as iteration through subsequent viewings of the same movie scene will foster new and better understanding with each viewing, supporting the internalization of expressions, features of the L2 and, ultimately, language development (Lantolf, 2006).

Third, a usage-based view holds that form-meaning mappings occur at all levels of the language and all need attention, so limiting the focus to a few regular patterns (e.g., third person -s) ignores the other 99% of the language that also needs to be acquired. Therefore, the focus is on form in a holistic sense: whole utterances in meaningful contexts are shown in

which the lexical patterns in particular are focused on because those are the most arbitrary and most difficult to acquire.

Fourth, as Krashen (1982) claims, a teaching approach that is student-friendly and non-threatening is beneficial for the learners affectively, which is in turn beneficial for language learning. In both teaching conditions of the current study, the teachers seemed to be equally enthusiastic and comfortable in their classrooms. So, what then contributed to the fact that the DUB learners gained more linguistic confidence at the end of the study and gained the same level of willingness to communicate in English? It can be seen that the control condition required the learners to complete a number of tasks that facilitated L2 output. This output-oriented approach could have been too demanding for the low proficiency language learners. Therefore, it may have made the learners feel less secure and thereby less confident with their use of the language. Meanwhile, the DUB approach did not require the learners to participate in any cooperative tasks at this stage of learning, but instead, provided them with a great deal of language and scaffolding. This input-oriented approach may have contributed to providing a less demanding learning environment. Therefore, it could have made the DUB learners feel more confident with the language in the end.

Finally, to learn a second or foreign language, learners need to be genuinely engaged, so that they will pay attention and are willing to invest the effort to discover form-meaning mappings. Our solution was to show a movie that already demonstrated high popularity ratings amongst viewers, with the assumption that there was therefore a much higher chance of L2 learners also enjoying the film. The teachers in the experiment remarked on the fact that as soon as a movie scene was shown all eyes were fixed on the screen and all students were interested. The teachers' impression was that the multiple viewings were not boring at all. We assume this is because the learners would understand a bit more and notice different things every time they saw the scene. The teachers who taught both a control and an experimental group mentioned that in the task-based learning method, students were often not completely involved in the rather artificial listening exercises and interaction situations. One other advantage of a movie is that it relieves the teacher from the responsibility of being the sole provider of input. No matter how fluent a foreign language teacher is, they often struggle to provide adequate amounts of authentic and interesting input, especially when there is not another fluent interlocutor to interact with. Movies provide far more authentic input than one single teacher would ever be able to provide in a classroom.

5.2.2 Explanation of non-positive effects

As mentioned earlier, the DUB group participants did non-significantly increase in their use of chunks as expected. However, as can be observed from previous studies (e.g., Smiskova & Verspoor, in press), being able to produce chunks takes a lot of time and requires a great deal of exposure. The DUB participants in the current study took the program for only one academic semester and thus did not yet significantly increase in the number of chunks when compared to the control group in their written post-test compositions.

As far as WTC is concerned, the control and DUB students were the same. From a DST perspective, which takes into account the limited attention a leaner can pay to a particular aspect of language, it is not possible for all aspects of language to develop at the same time, nor is it possible for all aspects to develop at the same speed. Within the period of time observed, the DUB learners developed more in their general proficiency and self-confidence. The fact that they were similar in WTC to the controls shows that the focus on listening did not have a negative effect on their WTC.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

Would this method be appropriate for all kinds of classes and students? Kempees (2011) experimented with a similar approach with her Dutch 13 year old high school students who were so bored and unmotivated in class that she asked for our help. The students watched *The Lord of the Flies* in 2–3 minute scenes, which were discussed until they understood what was happening. The teacher mentioned that they became so involved with the events that they spontaneously started to ask questions, make remarks about the characters, had discussions about the actions of the characters, and that they were not even aware that they spoke English to the teacher and to each other. At the end of the 10 week intervention, the experimental students were significantly more proficient than the control students, but their performance was weaker on a traditional grammar test. However, as Norris and Ortega (2000) point out, that may also be due to the way a test may be biased to the explicit grammar group. Rousse-Malpat et al. (2012) showed that L2 learners who were taught with a high input (focus on meaning) method demonstrated higher proficiency after one year, yet lower accuracy than the control group. However, after two years there were no significant differences between the groups in terms of accuracy. Currently, there is also a study into the effects of the DUB method in the form of a computer program in Sri Lanka with students at a higher proficiency level (about B1) than the ones in the current study, but there are no results as yet.

However, as Lightbown et al. (2002) have found with the extensive reading method, it was very effective early on, but after a few years the effectiveness had worn off, so it would be unwise to use the exact same method with the same techniques for many years on end because the more proficient students will have understood the language sooner and will have different needs. The scenes would not have to be shown so often and the movie- which would still provide the much needed input- could be used as a base for all kinds of language activating such as creative role plays, discussions on the cultural aspects of the scenes, web-quests to find out more about the background history, and so on. In other words, we suggest that the movie approach could be part of a more general task-based approach, as long as enough input is provided.

To conclude, we hope to have shown that input needs to be given back its rightful place in the second language classroom. It does not only make perfectly good sense from a dynamic usage-based theoretical perspective but also from the findings of the current study and earlier communicative language teaching studies.

5.4 Limitations

The current study had three limitations. First, it was a quasi-experimental study. The participants in the current study were not randomly divided into control and experimental groups; they were recruited from naturally intact classes. This made this study a quasi-experimental study or field study rather than a real or laboratory experiment in which unwanted factors could be controlled for. Thus, it would be difficult for the current study to draw a decisive conclusion that the teaching approaches were the main factors that brought about the outcomes, because there may have been other variables involved. Such confounding variables could have been the motivation of the learners (whether the learners learnt English for just a pass grade, for future jobs, or for enjoyment), and the group dynamics of each class (whether the classmates had a good time together on and off-campus). Second, no delayed post tests were performed. Thus, we do not know for sure if the DUB approach could have a positive effect in the long run, compared to the CLT approach. Finally, the relatively small number of participants - particularly for the control group (n = 69) - may have been a limitation. Thus, any generalization of the results of the current study has to be made with due considerations.

In spite of these limitations, the study achieved its objectives, by contributing to an understanding of the importance of frequent exposure to input in second language teaching in a natural classroom setting and the relevance of dynamic usage-based linguistics in second language teaching.

5.5 Directions for further research

There are four possible avenues for future research, based on the results of the current study.

First is the possibility of replication of the current research. The DUB principles can be applied to all levels of learners. The study can be replicated with participants of a more advanced level of English (e.g., English major university students) or of a lower level of English (e.g., high-school students). With a new choice of authentic input that is suitable for young learners, the study can be done with young participants (Vietnamese children are now beginning to learn English at school in the third grade). To see the long-term effect of the DUB approach (or any other approach), the study time should be longer, at least two consecutive semesters. Also, to be able to generalize the results with more certainty, a larger sample should be recruited and a randomization of samples should be applied.

Second, if written papers of learners could be obtained in a greater quantity large enough for a longitudinal study, future research could investigate the development of chunks over time of individual learners to see if there are differences and similarities between CLT learners and DUB learners in the development of chunk patterns.

Third, within the scope of this Ph.D. study only chunks in the written data were examined. Future research may want to analyze spoken data. In order to have a fuller picture as

to what extent learners use chunks in real conversations, it would be insightful to take a look at chunks that learners produce online, when they speak English spontaneously.

Finally, within the scope of this Ph.D. study, there were no investigations of the relationship between input and output. It would be worthy for future research to look into this relationship to see to what extent the input the learners are exposed to can contribute to his or her use of the language in actual communicative situations.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Guidelines for teaching the course General English 1

- Cover all the nine units of the course book Learning Breakthrough 1.
- For the Listening & Speaking section: Students are advised to listen to the accompanying CD beforehand at home. Teachers play the CD in class in order to correct students' answers. Teachers are advised to have students practice a lot of speaking in class.
- For the Writing section: Teachers instruct students steps to write a paragraph and a letter. Teachers are advised to have students finish the writing exercises in the Student Book and give students additional topics for them to practice writing.
- For the Reading section: Students are expected to prepare the reading section at home. Teachers only need to teach reading techniques and methods, and at the same time correct students' answers to the reading exercises.
- For the Grammar section: Students are expected to prepare the grammar section at home. In class, teachers are advised to present grammatical rules and their usage in a sytematical way, and gives answer keys to the grammar exercises.
- For the Workbook: Students are expected to finish all the exercises in the Workbook. Teachers are advised to check the assignments periodically and remind students of self-study.

Appendix B: Map of the student textbook *Learning Breakthrough 1*

UNIT	READING	GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY	LISTENING/ SPEAKING	PRONUNCIATION	WRITING	FOCUS ON TESTING
1. Welcome to Our University p. 1	Can Tho University - Skimming for general topics and general ideas - Guessing meaning through context clues: parentheses and a dash p. 2	The Present Simple tense p. 4	Words describing a college/ university - Learning parts of speech p.6	-Listening to people talking about four places at Can Tho University -Answering yes/no questions - Game: " Find Someone Who" p. 6	-Yes/No question intonation p. 7	Writing an informal letter to a friend, describing Can Tho University p. 8	LISTENING p. 11
2. A Day on Campus p. 13	University Life -Finding topic sentences - Guessing meaning through context clues: or, such as, for example, for instance p. 13	Adverbs of frequency (always / usually/ often/…) p. 15	-Words describing students' work, teaching methods and teaching styles - Learning parts of speech p. 17	-Listening for personal information -Asking for and giving personal information -Describing personal activities using adverbs of frequency p. 17	-Word stress p. 18	Filling in a course application form p. 19	LISTENING p.21
3. You and We p. 22	Educational Attitudes Skimming for paragraph topics and specific ideas Using words in context p. 22	Modal verb SHOULD p. 24	Words describing several learning attitudes that students should /shouldn't have p. 26	Listening for personal ideas -Giving advice using "should" -Expressing personal ideas using adjectives p. 26	- The International Phonetic Alphabet p. 26	Writing about a problem to post to an Internet forum p. 27	READING p.29
4. Live It! Love It! p. 30	Dormitory Life Skimming for paragraph topics and specific ideas Guessing meaning through antonyms and synonyms p. 30	Modal verb MAY p. 32	Words describing advantages and disadvantages of living in the dorm p. 34	-Listening to people asking for permissions -Asking for permissions and making requests p. 34	- The International Phonetic Alphabet (continued) p. 34	Writing an informal e-mail, describing one's living environment (life in the dorm, at the boarding house, etc.) p. 35	GRAMMAR p. 37

5. Join Us! p. 38	Extracurricular Activities Skimming for general ideas Scanning for specific information p. 38	The Present Continuous tense p. 40	Words describing students' activities outside class - Learning words in categories p.42	-Listening to people talking about their summer activities -Talking to people suggesting their summer activities -Talking about people's summer activities using the Present Continuous Tense p. 42	- The International Phonetic Alphabet (continued) p. 42	Writing a postcard p. 44	READING p. 46
PROGRESS CHECK 1-5 p. 48							

UNIT	READING	GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY	LISTENING/ SPEAKING	PRONUNCIATION	WRITING	FOCUS ON TESTING
6. Let's Have Fun! p. 58	Leisure Activities Skimming for specific ideas - Scanning for specific information p. 58	Gerunds p. 60	Words describing hobbies p.62	-Listening to people talking about their plans for weekend activities. -Talking about favorite free time activities p. 62	- The International Phonetic Alphabet (continued) p. 62	Writing about a new friend p. 64	READING p. 66
7. A Way to Success p. 68	Secrets to Success Skimming for topics and specific ideas Scanning for specific information Finding synonyms p. 68	The Simple Past tense p. 70	- Words describing past activities p. 72	-Listening to people talking about their past and current jobs -Telling people about special past events, last holidays, first schools, activities last weekend, and last films p. 72	- The International Phonetic Alphabet (continued) p. 72	Writing a response letter to a pen friend, describing past achievements p. 74	LISTENING p.76
8. Hopes and Dreams p. 78	Students' hopes and dreams Skimming for main ideas Scanning for specific information Finding synonyms p. 78	Hope / Want / Would Like p. 80	Words describing students' desires to do something at present or in the future p. 81	- Listening to people talking about the secrets of successful language learning. - Talking about hopes and dreams to do something p. 81	- The International Phonetic Alphabet (continued) p. 82	Writing a paragraph about one's hopes and dreams to post to a blog p. 83	LISTENING p.86

9. The Way Forward s	Life after Graduation Skimming for main ideas Scanning for specific information Recognizing words through context	Will / Be going To	Words describing future plans	-Listening to people talking about their future plans -Using a survey to find out what people will do in the next 2 years.	Revision of the International Phonetic Alphabet	Writing a journal	WRITING
p. 87	p. 87	p. 90	p. 92	p. 92	p. 92	p. 94	p. 96
PROGRESS CHECK 6-9							p. 99

Appendix C: A textbook unit sample
(reprinted with permission, reformatted to fit the thesis size)

Unit 1 *Welcome to Our University!*

READING

BEFORE YOU READ

1. ***Group work. Look at the picture. What's the name of the institution? What do you know about it?***

2. ***Pair work. Which words do you know? Work with your partner to find out the meanings of the words in the left column. Then match them with their meanings in the right column.***

1. to provide	a. a large organization that has a particular kind of work
2. institution	b. able to be used, or easy to be bought or found
3. staff	c. an activity that you do for pleasure
4. available	d. benefit
5. advantage	e. the people who work for an organization
6. recreation	f. to give something to someone

WHEN YOU READ

1. ***Which paragraph states each of the following ideas? Write the letter of the paragraph on the lines provided.***

___The advantages of studying at Can Tho University

___Conclusion

___Can Tho University's location and study programs

2. ***Are these statements about Can Tho University true (T) or false (F)? Write T or F on the lines provided.***

___Campus II is larger than the other two campuses.

___CTU doesn't offer Doctoral programs.

___The CTU Learning Resources Centre provides different kinds of materials for studying and researching.

___There are facilities for all kinds of sports in the University.

CAN THO UNIVERSITY

A. Built in 1966, Can Tho University (CTU) is the oldest university in the Mekong Delta in Vietnam. It has three campuses (the land and buildings). Of all the campuses, Campus II is the largest one. At present, CTU has 76 undergraduate, 28 Master's, and 8 Doctoral programs.

B. CTU facilities are among the best in the area. For example, the Learning Resources Centre or the central library provides updated resources (books, journals, e-books, and e-journals). Besides, with a video conferencing system, well-equipped laboratories, and one thousand new computers connected to the Internet, CTU makes teaching and research activities more fruitful. On campus, there are also sporting facilities – a gymnasium, tennis and badminton courts, and football fields. Teachers and students can have fun and relax at these places.

C. In conclusion, studying at CTU, students benefit from not only its latest inventions (innovations) in teaching and research but also its various recreational activities.

Using context clues

Punctuation such as *parentheses* ( ), or *a dash* (–) may give clues to the meaning of a word.
Example:

The University has 3 **campuses** (the land and buildings).

If you don't know the word "campuses", you can guess the meaning from the context clue in parentheses "the land and buildings".

3. ***Use context clues to answer the following questions.***

1. a. What are some examples of "sporting facilities"?

   _____

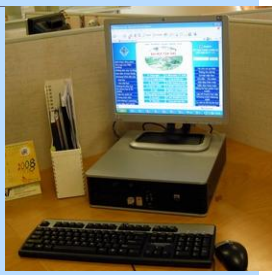
   b. What is the meaning of "sporting facilities"? Tick *(✓)* your choice.
   - rooms for studying Physical Education
   - places and/or equipment for people to play sports

2. "Books, journals, e-books, e-journals" are examples of _____
3. What is the meaning of "inventions"? _____

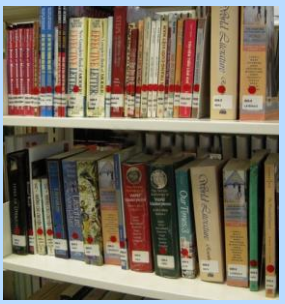
4. Find the words in the text to match with the pictures below.

a._____ b._____ c._____ d._____



e._____ f._____ g._____ h._____


AFTER YOU READ

Work in pairs. One is a foreigner. One is a CTU student. Ask about CTU. You can use these questions as cues.

1. What's your name? Are you a student?
2. Where do you study?
3. Where is Can Tho University?

4. How many campuses does CTU have?
5. On which campus do you study?
6. Where is the main library?
7. What does the library provide?
8. Are there any sporting facilities? What are they?

GRAMMAR — PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE

PRESENTATION

1. ***Read the sentences and answer the questions:***

a. Can Tho University is in the Mekong Delta.

b. One thousand computers are available at the Learning Resources Center.

c. Can Tho University has three campuses.

d. He reviews his lessons every evening.

e. Some students don't have classes at weekends.

1. *Circle the subjects and underline the verbs.*
2. *Which subjects are singular? Which are plural? Which subject is a pronoun?*
3. *Complete the chart below.*

	The verb To Be	Ordinary verbs
Affirmative	I + …… He / She / It / Singular Noun + …… You / We / They / Plural Noun + ……	I/ You/ We/ They/ Plural Noun + …… He/ She/ It/ Singular Noun + ……
Negative	I +……+ not He/ She/ It/ Singular Noun +……+ …… You/ We/ They/ Plural Noun + ……+ ……	I/You/We/They/Plural Noun +……..+ Infinitive He / She / It / Singular Noun + doesn't +…..……..
Question	…… + I? …… + he / she / it / Singular Noun? …… + you / we / they / Plural Noun?	…… + I/ you/ we/ they / Plural Noun +……..? …… + he / she / it / Singular Noun +……..?

4 *Which sentences are about the general truth? Which sentences are about the repeated actions in the present time?*

5 Complete the sentence about the use of the Present Simple tense:

We use the present simple tense to talk about…… or ……

PRACTICE

1. *Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verb in the brackets.*

1. I _____ (work) in a bank.
2. _____she _____ (live) in Florida?
3. Joe_____ (not, come) from the United States. He's from Australia.
4. We _____ (fly) to Hanoi every summer.
5. _____ students _____ (study) in June?

2. *Circle the letter of the word containing the mistake.*

1. Can Tho University are one of the largest universities in the Mekong Delta.
   A B C D
2. Mark comes from the United States. He work as an instructor at Can Tho University.
   A B C D
3. Kristy and John studies very hard so that they can pass the examination.
   A B C D
4. Do teachers at university likes to give students assignments and grade their homework?
   A B C D
5. We are new students at Can Tho University. We not know much about our school services.
   A B C D

PRODUCTION

Find someone who……
Ask and answer the questions, using the table below.

Who……..?	*Name*
1. is from the countryside. 2. studies a practical subject. 3. lives in the dormitory. 4. has a part-time job. 5. plays sports in his/her free time.	*Mai*

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

BEFORE YOU LISTEN

1. CTU Headquarters	2.Big Hall
3. Cafeteria	4. Youth Union

Vocabulary

Look at the pictures about Can Tho University. Match the words in the box with the places in the pictures. Write the numbers of your choice on the lines provided.

1.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

2. ***Listen and check your answers.***

Pronunciation- Word stress

In words with more than one syllable, we usually stress only one of the syllables.

1. ***Listen and repeat.***

Stress on the first syllable	Stress on the second syllable	Stress on the third syllable
campus *uniform*	*discover* *instructor*	*university* *individually*

2. ***Write these words in the correct column of the table above according to the stress.***

study, familiar, technology, favorite, building, employee, friendly, recreational

3. ***Listen, check and repeat.***

WHEN YOU LISTEN

1. ***You will hear a tour guide introducing four places of Can Tho University to first-year students. Listen and complete the left column of the table below with the names of the places.***

Names	Functions
1. LRC	Providing books, (a)_____ and all of the other learning devices for students.
2. _____	Organizing many activities and (b)_____
3. _____	Serving (c)_____and (d) _____ with very reasonable prices.
4. _____	Organizing a variety of (e) _____ activities for students.

2. ***Listen again and fill in each blank in the right column with one of these words:***

events *computers* *drinks* *social*

AFTER YOU LISTEN

Speaking activity

Work with your partner. Ask and answer the questions about Can Tho University, using the cues in the table below. Give reasons for your choice.

A: Do you like……?
B: Yes, I do./ No, I don't.

A: Why/ why not?
B: …….

Places	Yes	No	Reasons
1. LRC			
2. Big Hall			
3. Student cafeteria			
2. Youth Union			
3. Others: …			

WRITING Writing a letter

Writing task:

Write a letter to your friend, telling him or her about your new school.

BEFORE YOU WRITE

1. ***When you write a letter to your friend, telling about your university, what information would you like to write about? Check the list below and/ or write your own choice.***

the location	*the library*	*the sports center*
the classmates	*the Big Hall*	*C2 building*
the teachers	*the clubs*	*the dormitory*
Others: ……		

2. ***Read the following letter and answer these questions***

1. What does the writer tell about her school? Underline the ideas in the letter, using the table in Task 1.
2. Does she tell many good things about her school?
3. Does she complain about anything?

3. ***Look at the letter again. Answer the questions about it.***

1. How many parts are there in the letter? What are they?
2. Do you know some other words you can use in the greetings and the closing?

August 20, 2009

Dear Lan,

How're you? I'm happy to have you as my pen friend.

Well, you asked me about the University of Massachusetts. It's a beautiful university by a harbor. Here we call it Umass.

Let me tell you about some interesting buildings of the school. The first building is Healey Library. It's a quiet place and the librarians are very helpful. I read books and use computers in here. The Central Building is another great building at Umass. There is a One-Stop Shop in there. You can do most of your paper work at this building. It's very convenient!

I also like the sports center at Umass. It's good and free.

My classmates are friendly, but they speak too fast!

I'm excited to hear from you. Write and tell me about your Can Tho University.

Love,

Daisy

Date

Greetings

Body

Closing

Signature

WRITE

Make sentences using the cues below and put them in the form of a letter.

Dear Mark,
It / be/ good / to hear/ your university.
Well, I / you about / CanTho University.
It / be/ a large and beautiful / university.
There / be / many / plants around campus.

There / be / a lot / fresh air.
Let me / you about / my favourite building / of the university.
This building/ be/ Learning Resources Centre.
It / be/ a very quiet / place.
I /often / here / study by myself / read books / and /.
My friends / be / friendly and kind /.
Come/ and / me/ visit / when / you/ have/ time.
Love,

CORRECTION AND REVISION

1. Self-correction: Read your letter again, using the checklist below as reference for revising.

☐	Are all the ideas clear? - If not, make changes.
☐	Are all the verbs correct? - If not, make changes.
☐	Are the sentences connected? - If not, use linking words to connect them.
☐	Does the letter have a date, greetings, a body, a closing, and a signature? - If not, make changes.
☐	Are there any spelling mistakes? - If yes, correct the mistakes.
☐	Are there any grammatical mistakes? - If yes, correct the mistakes.

2. Peer-correction: Exchange your letter with a partner. Try to give each other some constructive feedback.

Appendix D: A movie unit sample

Viewing Day 1

- *A Cinderella Story* Part 1

A Cinderella Story 1

Scenes in Part 1

- Part 1a: Once upon a time…
- Part 1b: The City Hall
- Part 1c: The father's dream
- Part 1d: The loss of the father

A Cinderella Story Part 1 2

Part 1a
Words you will hear

- Once upon a time: long, long time ago
- A fairy tale: a picture story for children
- Kingdom: a country in which the head is the king (vương quốc)
- Princess: daughter of a king

A Cinderella Story 3

Part 1a
Words you will hear

His wife has died.

- A widowed father
- Step mother
- Step sister

A Cinderella Story 4

Part 1a
Words you will hear

- Valley: San Fernando Valley
- Smog: smoke + fog
- Diner

A Cinderella Story 5

Part 1a
Words you will hear

Spending free time with friends

- Hang out
- Growing up
- Make a wish

A Cinderella Story 6

A Cinderella Story Part 1a
Once upon a time…

General questions Part 1a

1. Is the movie about a fairy tale or a real story?
2. Who do you think is the main character?

Now, let's watch Part 1a again.

Part 1a again

Let's see what they actually said in the movie.

I'll help you with the meaning.

1. The girl is talking

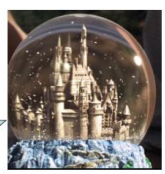
- Once upon a time, in a faraway kingdom, lived a beautiful little girl...

His wife has died.

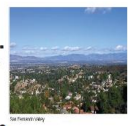
...and her widowed father.

It's beautiful.

What's beautiful? The castle in the snowglobe is beautiful!



2. She continues…



- Okay. It wasn't that long ago.
  And it wasn't really a faraway kingdom.
  It was the San Fernando Valley.
  It only looked faraway...
  ...because you could barely see it through the smog.
  But to me, growing up,
  the Valley was my kingdom.

could not see it very well

smoke+fog

3. She continues…

- I was my dad's best friend.
  And he was mine. — my best friend.
  Although being raised by a man
  put me behind in the make-up
  and fashion departments, — lacked
  I never felt like I missed out on anything.
  I was the luckiest girl in the world.

3. What does she mean?

Although being raised by a man put me behind in the make-up and fashion departments, I never felt like I missed out on anything.

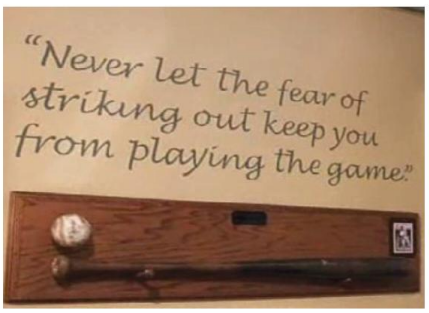
- The father raised her (educated her).
- He did not know about make-up.
- He did not know about fashion.
- He "put her behind" in these areas.
  = She knew less than her girlfriends about this.
- But she had everything. She didn't lack anything. She didn't feel like she missed out on anything.

4. She goes on.

- My dad owned the coolest diner
  in the whole valley. — Spending free time with friends
  I loved hanging out there.
  It was the kind of place
  where diet was a four-letter word...
  and grease came at — A bad swear word like Sh..t, f…ck!
  no add ional charge. — A kind of fat

4. What does she mean?

- *…diet was a four-letter word...*
  Diet was not good.
  People came to the diner and ate a lot.
  They didn't care about their weight.
- *and grease came at no additional charge.*
  Grease was free.



Never let the fear…

Never let the fear of striking out keep you from playing the game

= Keep on going.

Don't be afraid.

Stand up for what you believe in.

5. Birthday party

- At Hal's, everyone felt like family.
  (We feel like family, don't we?) (:
- Alright, I have drinks for everyone.
- Happy birthday!
- Make a wish, princess.
- What did I need a wish for?
  I had amazing friends and the coolest dad.
  But, I guess my dad thought I needed
  one more thing: Fiona.
- I am so sorry.

best

Any questions about the text of Part 1a?

Part 1a 3rd time

- Who said what to whom?
- How, where, when, why?

- I want you to focus on these little things while you're watching because after watching, you will read aloud the text, like the way the actors speak in the movie.

Reading aloud
(like an actor)

1. The girl is talking

- Once upon a time, in a faraway kingdom,
  lived a beautiful little girl
  and her widowed father.

- It's beautiful.

2. She continues…

- Okay. It wasn't that long ago.

  And it wasn't really a faraway kingdom.

  It was the San Fernando Valley.

2. She continues…

- It only looked faraway because you could barely see it through the smog.

  But to me, growing up,
  the Valley was my kingdom.

3. She continues…

- I was my dad's best friend.

  And he was mine.

3. She continues…

- Although being raised by a man

  put me behind in the make-up

  and fashion departments,

3. She continues…

- I never felt like I missed out on anything.

  I was the luckiest girl in the world.

4. She goes on…

- My dad owned the coolest diner in the whole valley.

  I loved hanging out there.

4. She goes on…

- It was the kind of place where diet was a four-letter word...

  and grease came at
  no additional charge.

5. Birthday party

- At Hal's, everyone felt like family.
- Alright, I have drinks for everyone.
- Happy birthday!
- Make a wish, princess.

5. Birthday party

- What did I need a wish for?

  I had amazing friends and the coolest dad.

  But, I guess my dad thought I needed
  one more thing: Fiona.

- I am so sorry.

- Any questions so far?
- So far so good?
- Alright, shall we continue with Part 1b?

Part 1b
Words you will hear

- Twin daughters
- Brianna
- Gabriella
- Step sister
- Out-of-step sisters

The sisters don't like each other. They don't walk "in step" but "out of step". They don't get along well. They fight each other all the time.

Part 1b
Words you will hear

- As long as
- One big, happy family
- "Cheese"
- Unfortunately
- Fairy tale

A Cinderella Story Part 1b
City Hall

General questions Part 1b

1. Where were the people?
2. Why were they there?
3. The stepmother dropped the flowers.
   Did she do that on purpose?

Let's watch Part 1b again, the 2nd time.

Part 1b again

Now, let's see what they actually said in the movie.
I'll help you with the meaning.

1. In front of the City Hall

- You look beautiful, Fiona.
- Hey, Hal!
- Along with my new stepmother came her twin daughters, Brianna and Gabriella. My out-of-step-sisters.

This is word-play. The step sisters do not walk "in step" but "out of step" = Figuratively this means they do not get along well.

2. Taking a photograph

If he was happy, I was happy.

- But as long as my dad was happy, so was I.
  We were going to be one big, happy family.
- "Cheese"
- One's enough
- Unfortunately, this was no fairy tale.

One photo is enough.

Too bad

Any questions about the text of Part 1b?

Part 1b 3rd time

- Who said what to whom?
- How, where, when, why?

Reading aloud
(like an actor)

1. In front of the City Hall

- You look beautiful, Fiona.
- Hey, Hal!

1. In front of the City Hall

- Along with my new stepmother came her twin daughters, Brianna and Gabriella. My out-of-step-sisters.

2. Taking a photograph

- But as long as my dad was happy, so was I.

2. Taking a photograph

- We were going to be one big, happy family.

2. Taking a photograph

- "Cheese."
- One's enough.
- Unfortunately, this was no fairy tale.

- Any questions so far?
- So far so good?
- Alright, shall we continue with Part 1c?

Part 1c
Word you will hear

- Took her hand
- Kissed it
- Swooped her up onto his horse
- Rode off to his castle
- Lived happily ever after

Part 1c
Words you will hear

- Grow up
- Go to college
- Build a castle
- Fulfill your dream

Part 1c
Words you will hear

- Stand up
- Believe in
- Later in life
- Earthquake
- Crumble down

A Cinderella Story Part 1c
The father's dream

General questions Part 1c

1. What kind of story was Sam's father reading to her? A fairy tale or a novel?
2. What happened in the Valley then?

Now let's watch it again, the 2nd time.

Part 1c again

1. Dad's reading A Cinderella Story to Sam

lifted her up

- "He took her hand, and he kissed it.
  Then he swooped her up onto his horse.

  And the beautiful princess
  and the handsome prince
  rode off to his castle
  "where they lived happily ever after."

2. Sam's questions

- Do fairy tales come true, Dad?
- Well, no. But dreams come true.
- - Do you have a dream?
- - Yeah.
  My dream is that you'll grow up
  and go to college...
  ...and then maybe someday you'll build
  your own castle.

3. One more question

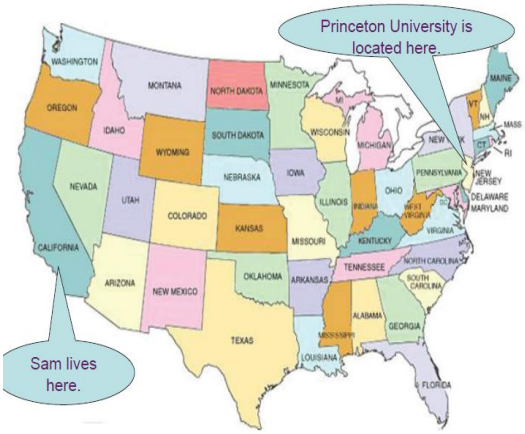
- Where do princesses go to college?
- They go...
  ...where the princes go.
  They go to Princeton.

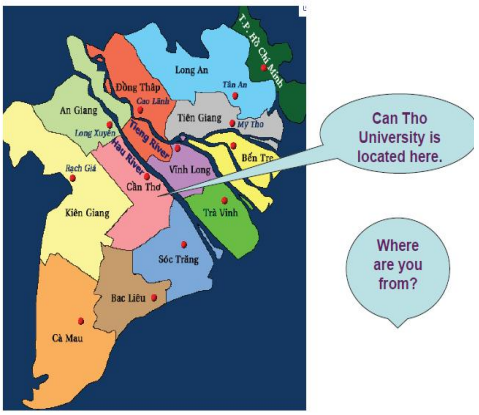
Princeton University

Princeton University

Princeton University

- Established in 1746
- One of the best universities
- In the world
- Located in Princeton,
- New Jersey, USA





4. Sam and Dad go on talking

- But, Sam, you know, fairy tales aren't just about finding handsome princes. They're about fulfilling your dreams... ...and about standing up for what you believe in. It's just as I always say: never let the fear of striking out...
- - Keep you from playing the game.
- - That's right.

5. If you look carefully, …

- And just remember, if you look carefully, this book contains important things... ...that you may need to know later in life.

6. Earthquake!

- - Earthquake!
- - My kingdom came crumbling down... the day the Northridge earthquake stroke the Valley.
- Help! Help!
- - Don't go!
- - I'll be right back.

hit

The building came crumbling down.

Any questions about the text of Part 1c?

Part 1c 3rd time

- Who said what to whom?
- How, where, when, why?

Reading aloud (like an actor)

1. Dad's reading Cinderella Story to Sam

- "He took her hand, and he kissed it.

  Then he swooped her up onto his horse.

1. Dad's reading Cinderella Story to Sam

- And the beautiful princess

  and the handsome prince

  rode off to his castle

  "where they lived happily ever after. "

2. Sam's questions

- Do fairy tales come true, Dad?
- Well, no. But dreams come true.
- - Do you have a dream?
- - Yeah.

2. Sam's questions

- My dream is that you'll grow up

  and go to college

  and then maybe someday

  you'll build your own castle.

3. One more question

- Where do princesses go to college?
- They go...where the princes go.

  They go to Princeton.

3. One more question

- But, Sam, you know, fairy tales aren't

  just about finding handsome princes.

4. Sam and Dad go on talking…

- They're about fulfilling your dreams...

  and about standing up

  for what you believe in.

4. Sam and Dad go on talking…

- It's just as I always say:
  never let the fear of striking out...
- - Keep you from playing the game.
- - That's right.

5. If you look carefully, …

- And just remember, if you look carefully,

  this book contains important things…

  that you may need to know later in life.

6. Earthquake!

- - Earthquake!

6. Earthquake!

- My kingdom came crumbling down...

  the day the Northridge earthquake

  stroke the Valley.

6. Earthquake!

- Help! Help!
- - Don't go!
- - I'll be right back.

- Any questions so far?
- So far so good?
- Alright, shall we continue with Part 1d?

Part 1d
Words you will hear

- Leave a will
- From then on
- To her dismay

Part 1d
Words you will hear

- To her dismay
  - To her dismay, she found that she lost her wallet.
  - She was shocked when she found out she lost her wallet.

A Cinderella Story Part 1d
The loss of father

General questions Part 1d

1. It's a sad scene, isn't it?
2. Sam looked very sad. Why?

Now, let's watch it again, the 2nd time.

Part 1d again

1. Sam's alone at the baseball field.

- I lost my best friend that day.

1. Sam's alone.

- And from then on, the only fairy tales in my life...were the ones I read about in books.

From that moment, her life was not a fairy tale anymore.

Her life was not wonderful anymore.

2. Sam moves to live in an attic.

- Since my father didn't leave a will,
  my stepmother got everything.
  The house, the diner,
  and to her dismay, me.

She was not happy to have me.

Part 1d 3rd time

- Who said what to whom?
- How, where, when, why?

1. Sam's alone.

- I lost my best friend that day.

  And from then on,

  the only fairy tales in my life…

  were the ones I read about in books.

2. Sam moves to live in an attic.

- Since my father didn't leave a will,
  my stepmother got everything.

  The house, the diner,

  and to her dismay,

  me.

ACT OUT

- Do fairy tales come true, Dad?
- Well, no. But dreams come true.
- - Do you have a dream?
- - Yeah.
- My dream is that you'll grow up
  and go to college...
  ...and then maybe someday you'll build
  your own castle.

TEN-MINUTE WRITING

Write for ten minutes as much as you can about
- your favorite character
OR
- your least favorite character
that you have watched today.

Appendix E: Final semester exam preparation materials (for movie classes)

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Introduce yourself.
2. What's your favorite animal? Why?
3. What's your favorite movie? Why?
4. What's your favorite teacher? Why?
5. What's your favorite food? Why?
6. What do you want to become? Why?
7. What kind of sport do you play?
8. What do you like about Can Tho University?
9. What don't you like about Can Tho University?
10. What do your parents do?
11. What do you think about your English class?
12. Who is your best friend? How would you describe him/her?
13. Do you have a lot of friends? Do you hang out with them? When you hang out together, what do you usaually do?
14. How do you spend your free time? What do you usually do in your free time? Why?
15. What is your favorite character in A Cinderella Story? How would you describe him/her (their look and personalities)?
16. What is your favorite character in Bridge to Terarbitia? How would you describe him/her (their look and personalities)?
17. Do you hang out with your friends? What do you usually in your free time? What's your idea of having fun?
18. What course did you like best this semester? Why?
19. If you had a wish, what would it be? Why?
20. What are some of your strengths and weaknesses?

VOCABULARY

In a faraway kingdom
In a magical world
A fairytale
Never let the fear of striking out keep you from playing the game.
Hang out
Go out
Play basketball
Play football
Student body president
No way.
Oh, no.
Watch TV
Listen to music
Take care of
Participate in
Be interested in
Be supposed to
What do you mean?
What I mean is…
One of my strengths is…
One of my weaknesses is…
My weak spot is …
(Điểm yếu của tôi là…)
Toy
Wedding ring
Take a test
Go away
Get married
Mess with
Mess it up
Make a wish
Make a deal
Put up with
You just saw your life flash before your eyes.
There's nothing stopping me from kicking your butt.
You rock.
That sucks.
Look, you've got a whole family behind you.
What am I supposed to do with the dead fish?
Do you think J.L. has a brown lawn?
…

GRAMMAR

The simple present tense
The simple past tense
Be going to/will
May
Should

Appendix F: The General English Proficiency Test

GENERAL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST
Time allotted: 70 minutes

PART 1 Read the sentences about going camping. Circle the best underlined word for each sentence.
1. They decided / thought / felt to go camping for their holiday.
2. They wanted to stand / put / stay somewhere near the sea.
3. It had / took / got three hours to bike to the campsite.
4. They put their tent in a center / corner / back of the field.
5. They bought / chose / sent some postcards to their friends.

PART 2 Read the sentences below. Circle the best underlined word(s) for each sentence
6. Some writers can describe things when / that / if / who they have never seen.
7. Nothing changes / was changing / has changed / changed in this town since I first visited it.
8. Hurry up! They've got only a little / much / a few / little seats left.
9. Who's going to take care up / of / after / for the children while you're away?
10. A meeting will be run / taken / held / done to discuss the matter.

PART 3 Read the description of some jobs. Write the word for each one. The first answer has been given as an example.

Job description	Word for the job	Answers
Example: I help people to learn things.	t _ _ _ _ _ _	teacher
11. I show customers the menu and bring them their food.	w _ _ _ _ _	11.
12. People come to me when they are sick.	d _ _ _ _ _	12.
13. I will repair your car for you.	m _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _	13.
14. If you want to change the colour of your room, I will do it for you.	p_ _ _ _ _ _	14.
15. I help my boss by answering the phone, making appointments and writing letters.	s_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _	15.

PART 4 Circle the word with the underlined part pronounced DIFFERENTLY from that of the other words in each set. (Trong mỗi câu sau đây, hãy khoanh tròn một từ có phần gạch dưới được phát âm KHÁC với phần gạch dưới của các từ còn lại).

16.	A. high	B. hour	C. house	D. home
17.	A. nation	B. patience	C. cancer	D. basic
18.	A. loves	B. practices	C. changes	D. watches
19.	A. heavy	B. easy	C. weather	D. head
20.	A. choose	B. Christmas	C. architect	D. chemistry

PART 5 There is one WRONG word in each sentence. Circle the word. Then correct it.

21. Peter is a nice guy. He always say “hi” to everyone.
22. My younger brother has worked in a bank since a long time.
23. How was your holiday? – Great! We take a lot of photos.
24. I go to My Khanh with some of my friends last weekend.
25. She’s staying with her family at the summer.

PART 6 Read the passage “Trade Secrets.” Circle the correct answer to Question 26.

26. What did Mary say about her mother’s wedding ring?
    A. Her mother lost her own wedding ring.
    B. As a child, she exchanged the ring for a toy.
    C. Someone stole the ring from her mother’s car.

Trade Secrets

When I was little, my friends and I always traded things. So one time, I traded this 'treasure' I had found in my mom's car for a plastic necklace – but it turned out that the 'treasure' was my mom's wedding ring! Mom has thought for years that someone stole her ring out of her car and has no idea that it was me! I've been keeping this secret ever since, and even though I'm grown up now, I still can't tell her the truth.

Mary

PART 7 Read this postcard. Write ONE word for each space. The first space has been done as an example.

Dear Peter,

I’m sitting _____on_____ the beach at the moment. Soon, I’m 27_____ to have a swim. I arrived here three days 28_____with my family. We 29_____be on holiday together here for two weeks. It 30 _____ a beautiful place. The beach is very near 31_____ hotel. The sea isn’t cold and 32_____ are many interesting places to visit. Yesterday we walked 33_____ a village in the mountains. I took lots 34_____ photographs. It’s 35_____ pity that you didn’t come 36_____ us.

Love,

Jane

PART 8 What does Kim say to Anita? Complete the conversation. Write the word (A, B, C, D, E, or F) in each space.

Anita: Hello, how are you doing? Kim: Pretty good, and you? Anita: I'm doing great. Kim: 37 …….. Anita: So, how long have you been going to this university? Kim: 38 …….. Anita: This is my first year. Kim: 39 …….. Anita: It's OK, but not great. Kim: 40 …….. Anita: I'll like it better once I finish my General Education. Kim: 41 ……..	A Bye, see you later. B That's exactly how I used to feel. C How do you like it so far? D You don't like it? E That's great to hear. F I've been going here for a couple of years now. You?

PART 9 LISTENING

Read the passage carefully for two minutes. Listen and fill in the spaces with words you hear. There is one word for each space. You will listen 3 times.

I LOVE YOU

Love makes the world 42 _____ _____ , not money. I agree with the centuries-old quote that says, 'Love conquers all'. It's true when you 43 _____ _____ _____. So much has been written about love. It must be 44 _____ _____ _____ most written and talked about topics ever. How many songs and poems 45 _____ _____ _____ love? Millions. Billions, perhaps. Love is everywhere. You can't 46 _____ _____ _____ day without hearing someone say 'love'. It is one 47 _____ _____ _____ beautiful words in any language. Your heart can melt when someone says 'I love you'. It's also very important 48 _____ _____ _____ you love them. You should do it every day. There are many different kinds of love and they are all important. Except perhaps when you love pizza or burgers. That's 49 _____ _____.

PART 10 WRITING

Choose ONE of the following topics. Write about that topic as much as possible.

1. My best friend
2. My dreams and goals for the future
3. My best trip
4. Things about my hometown

-THE END-

Appendix G: The General English Porficiency Test: Original and revised items

PART 2
Original item: 6. Some writers can exactly describe things when / that / if / who they have never seen.
Revised item: 6. Some writers can describe things when / that / if / who they have never seen.
(The adverb *exactly* was omitted.)

PART 4
Original item: 18. A. loved B.worked C. stopped D. liked
Revised item: 18. A. loves B. practices C. changes D. watches
(The *ed-endings* were changed by the *s-endings*.)

PART 6
Original item:
These are questions on a web chat: "*Do you and your friends copy each other' school work or do you do it always on your own? Copying is stealing, cheating, or is it OK somehow?*" Read carefully the following comments. Then circle the letter of the correct answer to Question 26.
Question 26: Who is not against copying?
A. Harriet B. Brooke C. Hannah D. Felicia

Harriet: I hate it when people get away with copying in tests, get good results and get the credit for it.

Brooke: It's really unfair to copy, particularly when someone else has put in the effort to learn the work.

Hannah: I copy things off the internet all the time. As long as you read through it, it's not such a big deal. I think it's alright to copy work of other people if it's homework and you know yourself how to do it, but you have no time to do it yourself. That's what friends are for, right?

Félicia: Copying is for losers! It won't get you anywhere. You should pay more attention in class so you can do it yourself.

Revised item:
Read the passage "*Trade Secrets*." Circle the correct answer to Question 26.
26. What did Mary say about her mother's wedding ring?
A. Her mother lost her own wedding ring.
B. As a child, she exchanged the ring for a toy.
C. Someone stole the ring from her mother's car.

Trade Secrets

When I was little, my friends and I always traded things. So one time, I traded this 'treasure' I had found in my mom's car for a plastic necklace – but it turned out that the 'treasure' was my mom's wedding ring! Mom has thought for years that someone stole her ring out of her car and has no idea that it was me! I've been keeping this secret ever since, and even though I'm grown up now, I still can't tell her the truth.

Mary

Appendix H: The WTC and SC Questionnaire

Bảng câu hỏi về ý muốn sử dụng tiếng Anh để giao tiếp và sự tự tin khi sử dụng tiếng Anh

Bảng câu hỏi này tìm hiểu về mức độ muốn giao tiếp bằng tiếng Anh và mức độ tự tin khi giao tiếp bằng tiếng Anh của sinh viên. Xin vui lòng trả lời tất cả các câu hỏi. Các thông tin cá nhân và câu trả lời của bạn sẽ hoàn toàn được bảo mật và chỉ được dùng cho mục đích nghiên cứu.

Hướng dẫn:

Xin vui lòng khoanh tròn con số thể hiện mức độ bạn muốn sử dụng tiếng Anh trong các tình huống trong và ngoài lớp sau đây, với:
1 là "Hầu như không muốn " và
4 là "Rất muốn."

Xin vui lòng khoanh tròn con số thể hiện mức độ tự tin của bạn khi sử dụng tiếng Anh trong các tình huống trong và ngoài lớp sau đây, với:
1 là "Hầu như không tự tin" và
4 là "Rất tự tin."

Ghi chú: (1) Trong bảng câu hỏi này, lớp là một lớp tiếng Anh căn bản mà bạn sẽ học hoặc đang học ở đại học. Trình độ tiếng Anh của mọi người trong lớp là đều nhau và tương đương với trình độ tiếng Anh của bạn. (2) Từ "tiếng Anh" được viết tắt là "TA".

TT	Tình huống trong lớp (In-class Situations)	Ý muốn	Tự tin
1	Đứng lên và giới thiệu ngắn gọn về bản thân bằng TA khi được yêu cầu. *Stand up and briefly introduce yourself to everyone, when asked.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
2	Khi có một câu hỏi muốn hỏi, bạn giơ tay để hỏi bằng TA. *Raise your hand and ask a question when you have a question.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
3	Khi có câu trả lời, bạn giơ tay để trả lời bằng TA. *Raise your hand and give an answer when you have an answer.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
4	Hỏi một bạn trong lớp bằng TA về một từ mà bạn không biết. *Ask a classmate the meaning of a word you do not know.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
5	Hỏi một bạn cùng lớp bằng TA cách diễn đạt trong TA như thế nào để diễn đạt suy nghĩ của bạn. *Ask a classmate how to say something in English to express your thoughts.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
6	Thực hiện đóng vai trước lớp bằng TA. *Do a role-play standing in front of the class.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
7	Thực hiện đóng vai ngồi tại chổ bằng TA. *Do a role-play at your desk .*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
8	Phát biểu ý kiến bằng TA khi thảo luận nhóm về cuộc sống ở đại học. *Give your opinion in a group discussion on university life.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
9	Bằng TA, yêu cầu bạn cùng lớp lặp lại một điều gì đó cho bạn. *Ask your classmate to say something again.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
10	Bằng TA, cho biết là bạn không đồng ý một điều gì đó và giải thích lý do tại sao. *Say you don't agree about something and explain why.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
11	Viết về một người bạn mới quen bằng TA. *Write about a new friend of yours.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
12	Viết về sở thích của bạn bằng TA.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	Write about your favorite hobby.		
13	Khen một người bạn cùng lớp (có áo mới, điện thoại mới, xe đạp mới, mới cắt tóc, trình bày tốt bài báo cáo, có câu trả lời hay, hoặc sửa được cho bạn chiếc xe đạp, v.v…) bằng TA. *Compliment a classmate (new shirt, new cell phone, new bike, new haircut,presenting a good talk, having a good answer, fixing your bike for you, etc.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
14	Kể về kỳ nghỉ hè của bạn cho một nhóm các bạn cùng lớp nghe, bằng TA. *Speak in a group about your summer vacation.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
15	Mô tả một bức tranh cho một bạn cùng lớp vẽ lại, bằng TA. *Describe a painting for a classmate to draw.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
16	Mô tả một bức tranh cho cả lớp vẽ lại, bằng TA. *Describe a painting for the whole classmate to draw.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
17	Bằng TA, mô tả luật chơi của một môn thể thao để cả lớp Đoán đó là môn gì. *Describe the rules of a sport for everyone to guess what it is.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
18	Nghe một bạn cùng lớp mô tả một vật gì đó bằng TA và đoán đó là vật gì. *Listen to a classmate describe an object and guess what it is.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
19	Nghe giáo viên của bạn mô tả một vật gì đó bằng TA và đoán đó là vật gì. *Listen to your teacher describe an object and guess what it is.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
20	Dịch một câu nói từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Anh. *Translate a spoken sentence from Vietnamese into English.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
21	Đọc to một đoạn văn ngắn bằng TA, khi có yêu cầu. *Read a short English paragraph aloud when asked.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
22	Hỏi một bạn cùng lớp mà bạn thích vài câu hỏi bằng TA để biết thêm về bạn ấy. *Ask a classmate you like a few questions to get to know him/her better.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
23	Bằng TA, yêu cầu giáo viên của bạn lặp lại điều vừa nói vì bạn chưa hiểu. *Ask the teacher to repeat what he/she just said because you didn't understand.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
TT	**Tình huống ngoài lớp (Outside-of-class Situations)**	**Ý muốn**	**Tự tin**
24	Chỉ đường bằng TA cho một người nước ngoài khi được hỏi. *Show directions to a foreigner when asked.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
25	Gửi nhận xét của bạn bằng TA trên mạng xã hội (ví dụ: Facebook). *Post your comment on a social network (e.g., Facebook).*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
26	Nói chuyện bằng TA với người nước ngoài nếu họ bắt chuyện với bạn trước. *Talk to a foreigner if he/she talks to you first.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
27	Hỏi đường bằng TA đi khi bị lạc đường ở nước ngoài. *Ask directions when you get lost in a foreign country.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
28	Gửi tin nhắn bằng TA. *Send a text message).*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
29	Gửi thiệp chúc mừng (sinh nhật, Giáng Sinh, Năm Mới, v.v.) cho bạn bè bằng TA. *Write greeting cards to send to your friends (birthdays, Christmas, New Year's Day, etc.).*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
30	Liệt kê ra bằng TA các công việc bạn phải làm ngày mai . *Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

31	Gửi email bằng TA cho giáo viên tiếng Anh của bạn. *Write an email to your English teacher.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
32	Đọc thông tin bằng TA trên mạng Internet về các bộ phim bạn yêu thích. *Read summaries or plots of movies you like on the Internet.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
33	Điền thông tin vào đơn đăng ký (đơn xin việc, đơn xin đăng ký CLB, đơn xin học, v.v.) bằng TA. *Fill out an application form (for jobs, clubs, study, etc.).*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
34	Dịch giúp một ai đó một lá thư cá nhân từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Anh để anh ấy/cô ấy gửi cho bạn nước ngoài của anh ấy/cô ấy. *Help someone to translate her personal letter in Vietnamese into English, so he/she can send it to his/her foreign friend.*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
35	Dùng TA để kết bạn trên mạng Internet (ví dụ: kết bạn qua Yahoo, Skype, Twitter, etc.). *Make friends with people online (e.g., Yahoo, Skype, Twitter, etc.).*	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

Xin vui lòng điền thông tin cá nhân:

Họ và tên sinh viên: _____

MSSV: _____

Cảm ơn bạn đã hợp tác!

Chúc bạn luôn thành công!

Appendix I: The Language Exposure Questionnaire

BẢNG CÂU HỎI VỀ VIỆC TIẾP XÚC VỚI TIẾNG ANH

Bảng câu hỏi này tìm hiểu về việc tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh của bạn. Xin vui lòng trả lời tất cả các câu hỏi một cách chính xác. Câu trả lời của bạn sẽ được bảo mật và dĩ nhiên là sẽ không ảnh hưởng đến điểm học phần của bạn. Chỉ có người nghiên cứu mới được đọc các câu trả lời của bạn.

1. Bạn có học tiếng Anh ở trường phổ thông không? Có / Không
2. Nếu có, bạn đã học tiếng Anh ở những lớp học nào? Lớp 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
3. Bạn có học khóa tiếng Anh nào ở các Trung tâm Ngoại ngữ không? Có / Không
4. Nếu có, tổng số giờ đã học ước tính là bao nhiêu giờ? ____
5. Bạn có học thêm tiếng Anh ở nhà giáo viên không? Có / Không?
6. Nếu có, tổng số giờ đã học ước tính là bao nhiêu giờ? ____
7. Bạn có học tiếng Anh với một gia sư không? Có / Không
8. Nếu có, tổng số giờ đã học với gia sý ýớc tính là bao nhiêu giờ? ____
9. Hiện tại bạn có làm gia sý tiếng Anh không? Có / Không
10. Nếu có, tổng số giờ bạn đã làm gia sư tiếng Anh ước tính là bao nhiêu giờ? _____

Các câu hỏi 10-17 tìm hiểu về trình độ tiếng Anh và tuổi của người thân của bạn.

1= rất tốt, 2 =tốt, 3 =khá, 4 = trung bình, 5 = thấp , 6 = rất thấp, 7 = không biết tiếng Anh
8= không áp dụng

11. Cha tôi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
12. Mẹ tôi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13. Anh/chị/em thứ nhất	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
14. Anh/chị/em thứ hai	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
15. Anh/chị/em thứ ba	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
16. Anh/chị/em thứ tư	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

17. Anh chị em của bạn bao nhiêu tuổi? (Nếu không có anh chị em, hãy sang câu hỏi 18).
Tuổi của anh chị em # 1 là _____
Tuổi của anh chị em # 2 là _____
Tuổi của anh chị em # 3 là _____
Tuổi của anh chị em # 4 là _____

Các câu hỏi 18-23 tìm hiểu về những thiết bị bạn có sẵn ở nhà và mức độ bạn sử dụng các thiết bị này thường xuyên như thế nào.

18. Ở nhà, tôi có các thiết bị sau đây: (Có thể có nhiều câu trả lời).
    - □ Ổ đĩa DVD
    - □ Mp3-speler/discman
    - □ Ổ đĩa CD
    - □ Máy tính
19. Tôi sử dụng các thiết bị sau đây: (Thậm chí các thiết bị này không có sẵn trong gia đình bạn).
    - □ Ổ đĩa DVD
    - □ Mp3-speler/discman
    - □ Ổ đĩa CD
    - □ Máy tính
20. Khoảng bao nhiêu giờ Mỗi tuần bạn sử dụng DVD? _____
    (Ví dụ, xem phim hay nghe nhạc)
21. Khoảng bao nhiêu giờ Mỗi tuần bạn nghe đĩa CD? _____

22. Khoảng bao nhiêu giờ Mỗi tuần bạn sử dụng mp3-speler/discman? _____
23. Khoảng bao nhiêu giờ Mỗi tuần bạn sử dụng máy tính? _____

Các câu hỏi 24-29 tìm hiểu về việc sử dụng TV, Radio, Video, hoặc DVD trong các lớp học tiếng Anh của bạn.

24. Giáo viên của bạn có bao giờ sử dụng các tài liệu ghi âm từ các chương trình tiếng Anh trên radio hoặc TV không? Có / Không
25. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
26. Giáo viên của bạn có bao giờ sử dụng các đĩa CD đi kèm với tài liệu giảng dạy tiếng Anh sử dụng trong lớp không? Có / Không
27. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
28. Có bao giờ tài liệu giảng dạy tiếng Anh bằng Video / DVD được sử dụng trong các lớp học tiếng Anh của bạn không? Có / Không
29. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần
    - □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần

Các câu hỏi 30-41 tìm hiểu về việc sử dụng TV, Radio, Video, DVD, hoặc và Internet của bạn.

30. Sau giờ học ở trường, bạn có nghe đài phát thanh bằng tiếng Anh không? Có / Không
31. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
32. Sau giờ học ở trường, bạn có xem các chương trình phát sóng bằng tiếng Anh trên TV không? Có / Không
33. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
34. Bạn có xem phim DVD hoặc Video tiếng Anh không? Có / Không
35. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
36. Bạn có xem phim tiếng Anh trên mạng Internet không? Có / Không
37. Nếu có, mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào?
    - □ Mỗi tháng ít hơn 1 lần □ Mỗi tuần 1 lần
    - □ Mỗi tháng 1-3 lần □ Mỗi tuần nhiều hơn 1 lần
38. Mỗi tuần bạn nghe nhạc bao nhiêu giờ?
    - □ 1-3 giờ
    - □ 4-8 giờ

□ 9-12 giờ
□ 13 giờ hoặc hơn
□ Tôi không nghe nhạc

39. Bạn nghe nhạc tiếng Anh hay tiếng Việt?
□ Chỉ nghe nhạc tiếng Anh
□ Chủ yếu là nhạc tiếng Anh
□ Nhiều nhạc tiếng Anh hơn một chút
□ Tương đối bằng nhau
□ Nhiều nhạc tiếng Việt hơn một chút
□ Chủ yếu là nhạc tiếng Việt
□ Chỉ nghe nhạc tiếng Việt
□ Không áp dụng

40. Lời nhạc tiếng Việt quan trọng với bạn như thế nào?
□ Rất quan trọng
□ Quan trọng
□ Không quan trọng mấy
□ Không quan trọng
□ Không áp dụng

41. Lời nhạc tiếng Anh quan trọng với bạn như thế nào?
□ Rất quan trọng
□ Quan trọng
□ Không quan trọng mấy
□ Không quan trọng
□ Không áp dụng

Bạn có những cơ hội nào để tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh? Dưới đây (câu hỏi 42-54) là một số cơ hội có thể có. Bạn hãy cho biết mức độ thường xuyên bạn tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh thông qua các cơ hội này.

1 = rất thường xuyên, 2 = thường xuyên, 3 = đôi khi, 4 = Không bao giờ

42. Giáo viên tiếng Anh	1 2 3 4	49. CD / mp3	1 2 3 4
43. Phụ huynh	1 2 3 4	50. Điện ảnh	1 2 3 4
44. Anh chị em	1 2 3 4	51. Báo chí	1 2 3 4
45. Bạn bè	1 2 3 4	52. Tạp chí	1 2 3 4
46. Âm nhạc	1 2 3 4	53. Sách	1 2 3 4
47. Đài phát thanh	1 2 3 4	54. Máy tính	1 2 3 4
48. TV	1 2 3 4		

55. Bạn thấy ngôn ngữ tiếng Anh có thú vị không?
□ Rất thú vị
□ Cũng thú vị, nhưng không nhiều
□ Không thú vị gì mấy
□ Không thú vị

56. Học tốt ngôn ngữ tiếng Anh có tầm quan trọng như thế nào đối với bạn?
□ Rất quan trọng
□ Khá quan trọng
□ Không quan trọng mấy
□ Không quan trọng

Biết tiếng Anh sẽ có những thuận lợi gì? Dưới đây (câu hỏi 57-65) là các ý kiến. Bạn hãy cho biết mức độ đồng ý của bạn với các ý kiến này như thế nào.

1 = rất đồng ý, 2 = đồng ý, 3 = không đồng ý, 4 = rất không đồng ý

57. Biết tiếng Anh, người khác sẽ hiểu bạn nhiều hơn khi bạn ở nước ngoài.
1 2 3 4

58. Biết tiếng Anh, bạn sẽ hiểu lời bài hát tiếng Anh được rõ hơn.
1 2 3 4
59. Biết tiếng Anh, bạn sẽ sử dụng máy tính và các thiết bị khác dễ dàng.
1 2 3 4
60. Biết tiếng Anh, bạn có thể dễ dàng nói chuyện với người khác.
1 2 3 4
61. Có nhiều điều nghe bằng tiếng Anh thì cảm thấy hay hơn.
1 2 3 4
62. Có nhiều điều không thể diễn đạt bằng tiếng Việt.
1 2 3 4
63. Nếu bạn muốn học tốt, bạn rất cần biết tiếng Anh.
1 2 3 4
64. Nếu biết tiếng Anh, bạn có nhiều cơ hội có việc làm tốt.
1 2 3 4
65. Những thuận lợi khác mà bạn nhận thấy được khi bạn đang học tiếng Anh là gì?

Các câu hỏi (66-68) tìm hiểu về trình độ tiếng Anh hiện nay của bạn, về phần trăm kiến thức tiếng Anh bạn đã học được từ nhà trường/ từ bên ngoài nhà trường, và về các thông tin cá nhân của bạn.

66. Theo bạn, trình độ tiếng Anh hiện nay của bạn đang ở mức độ nào?

Nghe	□ Tốt	□ Khá	□ Thấp	□ Rất thấp
Nói	□ Tốt	□ Khá	□ Thấp	□ Rất thấp
Đọc	□ Tốt	□ Khá	□ Thấp	□ Rất thấp
Viết	□ Tốt	□ Khá	□ Thấp	□ Rất thấp

67. Theo ước tính của bạn, có bao nhiêu phần trăm kiến thức tiếng Anh của bạn học được trong trường và bao nhiêu phần trăm học được từ bên ngoài?

	_____% trong trường học
	_____% bên ngoài trường học
Tổng cộng:	100%

68. Xin vui lòng điền các thông tin cá nhân sau đây:

Họ và tên: ……

MSSV: ……...

Địa chỉ email: …….

Số điện thoại di động của bạn (nếu được):…….

Điểm thi TOEIC của bạn:……

Họ và tên giáo viên AVCB 1 của bạn:……

Ngày, tháng, năm (hôm nay):…….

Cảm ơn bạn đã hợp tác!

Chúc bạn luôn thành công!

Appendix J: Oral Proficiency Rubric

The students were graded on a ten point scale, from 0-9. During the course of evaluation half-scores were also given, e.g., 1-, 3+,0+, etc. However, as the highest score ever given was a 5, the scale could be adjusted to eliminate these half-scores. The highest score in the "old" scale, a 5, would become a 9 in the new scale. Similarly, the other scores would spread out to make room for the half-scores. This grader is of the opinion that the scale should be kept as is. The fact that no student scored about 6 is important in noting the general skill level of the entire sample group, which was low.

Level 0 is the lowest score given and is characterized by an inability to answer questions or really articulate much of anything. Students at level 0 could often not say much in English beyond their name, hometown, and maybe major. They were often unable to answer simple questions or form complete sentences.

Level 1 is slightly more responsive than level 0. Students in level 1 could often introduce their age, hometown, major, number of family members, and maybe a sport they liked. Level 1 students could often respond to simple questions, as long as they were read clearly and/or repeatedly. However, their responses were usually not complete sentences. Level 1 students often had just enough comprehension to understand what a question meant, but not always the language to reply to the question. Their pronunciation is often a hindrance to understanding them, even to a sympathetic listener.

Level 2 is marked by being able to respond to most questions but still in broken sentences or short phrases. Students of this level could often describe where they were from, what their parents did for a living, and how often they went home to see their family. These students could usually answer questions concerning their friends and hobbies, but not in complete sentences. Level 2 students still do not have the capability to really have a conversation, or respond fluently to sentences. However, they are able to get their point across, and usually know how to understand and respond to reasonably simple questions. Their pronunciation is occasionally a hindrance to being understood.

Level 3 students are able to speak in simple full sentences in response to questions. They are able to smoothly and comfortably deliver their basic information such as major, hobbies, age, and family information. They are also able to respond to questions relatively quickly, and fairly accurately. This is the first level where a student could have a real conversation with someone. The students at this level still make plenty of errors, and their pronunciation may be difficult to understand at times. However they are usually confident and can get their point clearly across.

Level 4 students are beginning to master more complicated English and can speak in longer sentences than level 3. Their pronunciation is beginning to become only a slight barrier towards being understood, and their intonation is good. Students at this level have no problem

responding to the basic questions that were asked of them during the interviews. However, they may pause slightly or misspeak when trying to articulate more advanced subjects. Although these students are comfortable answering most questions asked of them in the interviews, they still have difficulty asking questions of their own, or thinking creatively. These students were often able to think into the past, but not always the future.

Level 5 was reached by only a couple of students during the study. These students are by no means fluent in English. However, they were the best students encountered during the study. These students could respond with relative ease to the questions asked of them. They were also very capable of explaining more complicated details, such as what they had studied in the past and what they were studying now, and why. These students could often talk about their future plans, something a lot of the lower level students had trouble with. Level 5 subjects were often enthusiastic and more spontaneous than the lower levels.

Half levels:
A student was given a half level + when they exceeded the criteria for one level, but did not quite reach the next level up. A student was given a half level - when they seemed to be almost at a higher level, but obviously still had one or two small gaps in their English level. The half levels came about as a way to be more specific in our grading scale after it quickly became apparent that a lot of our students were going to be in the lower third of our 0-9 scale. As such, these half points came to represent just that a student is stuck in the middle of the levels listed above.

List of abbreviations

ACTFL	American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages
CAL	Center for Applied Linguistics
CD	compact disk
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLT	communicative language teaching
CTU	Can Tho University
DST	Dynamic System Theory
DUB	dynamic usage-based
DVD	digital video disk
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
GEP	general English proficiency
IELTS	international English language testing system
L1	first, or native language
L2	second language
NS	native speaker
PhD	doctor of philosophy
SC	self-confidence
SOPA	student oral proficiency assessment
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
TESL	teaching English as a second language
TESOL	teaching of English to speakers of other languages
TOEFL	test of English as a foreign language
TOEIC	test of English for international communication
UBL	usage-based linguistics
WTC	willingness to communicate

Nederlandse samenvatting

In de afgelopen jaren is in Vietnam bijzondere aandacht besteed aan het Engels als vreemde taal (EFL). Omdat het Engels steeds meer gezien wordt als een belangrijk instrument van de overheid voor het beleid van internationale betrokkenheid en participatie in de wereldmarkten, heeft het Vietnamese Ministerie van Onderwijs en Vorming actief geïnvesteerd in de ontwikkeling van qualiteit van leraren, herziening van lesmateriaal en het gebruik van audio-visuele hulpmiddelen in het taalonderwijs. Om de kennis van het Engels van de Vietnamese leerders te verbeteren wordt in dit promotieonderzoek gekeken naar de mogelijkheden van een Dynamic Usage - based (DUB) benadering die kan worden gezien als een samensmelting van Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) en usage based linguistics (UBL) om te onderzoeken of EFL leerders profiteren van een grote hoeveelheid authentieke input van het Engels.

Geïnspireerd door deze DST en UBL principes, is een cursus Engels ontwikkeld voor een groep eerste en tweede jaar universiteitsstudenten in Vietnam. De cursus omvatte onder meer een grote hoeveelheid betekenisvolle input middels een populaire Engels film. De film werd geknipt in scènes van 2-3 minuten die herhaaldelijk werden getoond, waarbij de leerkracht ondersteunende informatie gaf. Hoewel er geen expliciete uitleg van grammaticale regels is, betekent niet dat er geen aandacht was voor vorm. Er was aanzienlijke impliciete aandacht voor vorm - betekenis paren op alle niveaus: woord, zin, geconventionaliseerd uitdrukkingen, idiomen en zinspatronen, alle eerst auditief gepresenteerd in de context van de echte gebruikssituaties, met uitleg over de erbijhorende L2 culturele en pragmatische functies.

De studie vergeleek de vooruitgang van zowel de receptieve als de productieve Engels taalvaardigheid gemeten met standaardtests en zelf-gerapporteerde Engels taalvaardigheid van een controlegroep en een experimentele groep door middel van een interventie die 12 -15 weken duurde. De controlegroep werd onderwezen met een taakgerichte cursus ontwikkeld door de docenten Engels, die gericht is op vorm, interactie en output, met relatief weinig authentieke input. De experimentele groep werd onderwezen met authentieke input en hoewel er ruimte was voor natuurlijke interactie wanneer studenten vragen hadden of wanneer er een rollenspel activiteit werd gedaan, was er geen verdere focus op output/taalproductie. Het grootste deel van de tijd werd besteed aan aandachtig luisteren en het belangrijkste doel was om studenten te helpen begrijpen wat er werd gezegd in de film.

De resultaten laten zien dat de studenten die Engels leerden in deze input - rijke en luister - gerichte benadering (dwz de DUB - of experimentele conditie) significant meer vooruitgingen in algemene receptieve vaardigheid, spreken en zelfvertrouwen in vergelijking met de leerders

in de controle conditie. Een onverwacht resultaat was dat het gebruik van vaste uitdrukkingen door de DUB leerders niet significant vooruitging in vergelijking met de controle groep.

Hoofdstuk 1 beschrijft de twee belangrijkste redenen waarom EFL leerders in Vietnam een beperkt niveau van Engels taalvaardigheid hebben, met het argument dat het cruciaal is voor EFL leerders met een lage taalvaardigheid om te worden blootgesteld aan veel authentieke input voordat ze zelf taal moeten produceren. De eerste reden is dat de leerders niet voldoendeworden blootgesteld aan authentieke input. De tweede reden is de te grote nadruk op taalproductie. Hoewel de leerders nog niet klaar zijn om Engels te spreken wordt hen op de universiteit vaak gevraagd in pair / groepswerk Engels productief te gebruiken voor en tijdens de lessen.

Hoofdstuk 1 wordt afgesloten met de vier onderzoeksvragen:

1. Ontwikkelt de taalvaardigheid van EFL leerders zich beter wanneer ze worden blootgesteld aan een benadering met veel input in vergelijking met de huidige communicatieve benadering?
2. Leren de EFL leerders met een lage taalvaardigheid meer stereotype vaste uitdrukkingen wanneer ze worden blootgesteld aan een benadering met veel input in vergelijking met de huidige communicatieve benadering?
3. Zijn EFL leerders met een lage taalvaardigheid meer bereid om te communiceren in het Engels wanneer ze worden blootgesteld aan een benadering met veel input in vergelijking met de huidige communicatieve benadering?
4. Krijgen de EFL leerders met een lage taalvaardigheid meer zelfvertrouwen bij het gebruik van Engels bij een benadering met veel input in vergelijking met de huidige communicatieve benadering?

Hoofdstuk 2 gaat in op wat een DUB benadering van tweede taalonderwijs inhoudt. Deze aanpak, die is gebaseerd op DST (Dynamic Systems Theory) en UBL(Usage Based Linguistics) perspectieven, ziet taal als een verzameling van geconventionaliseerd eenheden, waarvan sommige specifiek zijn en anderen meer schematisch. Een UBL-benadering houdt in dat de belangrijkste factor in de ontwikkeling van taal de frequentie van de blootstelling is, bij voorkeur in sociaal en cultureel betekenisvolle gebruikssituaties. Een DST-perspectief suggereert dat taalontwikkeling niet lineair is en dat verschillende subsystemen in de taal zich in verschillende tempo's en op verschillende tijdstippen ontwikkelen. Herhaalde aanbieding van hetzelfde materiaal is een belangrijk aspect van de benadering. Hoewel er een flink aantal studies over L2 ontwikkeling (leren) met een DUB perspectief zijn uitgevoerd, zijn er geen empirische studies over een DUB benadering van tweede-taalonderwijs. De belangrijkste studies op dit gebied worden in dit hoofdstuk besproken.

Hoofdstuk 3 beschrijft de opzet en analyse van de huidige studie. De studie was een pre/post-test longitudinale studie opgezet om de effectiviteit van een DUB benadering bij het onderwijzen van Engels als tweede taal, gemeten door een taaltoets en twee vragenlijsten, te

onderzoeken. Er was een controlegroep (n = 69) en een experimentele groep (n = 94). Deze studie is uitgevoerd in een natuurlijke klassesituatie in een Vietnamese universiteit, met als doel om te onderzoeken of een DUB aanpak voor het aanleren van een tweede taal bij leerders met een lage taalvaardigheid een effect heeft in termen van algemene taalvaardigheid, het gebruik van vaste uitdrukkingen, willingness to communicate (WTC) en zelf-vertrouwen (Self confidence SC). Om de onderzoeksvragen te beantwoorden werden vier analyses uitgevoerd. Analyse 1 was gericht op de effecten van de DUB -programma wanneer de gegevens van alle 163 deelnemers (controle en experimentele structuren) van alle vier docenten werd geanalyseerd. Analyse 2 was gericht op de effecten van het DUB -programma wanneer alleen studenten van de twee leraren die in beide condities (DUB tegenover communicatief) onderwezen, werden geanalyseerd. Analyse 3 was gericht op de resultaten van de vier experimentele klassen en analyse 4 op de resultaten van de drie controle klassen. Voor de eerste twee analyses werden Independent Samples t - tests gebruikt om te zien of er een significant verschil was tussen de controle en experimentele groepen wat betreft algemene taalvaardigheid, schrijven, spreken, zelf-gerapporteerde taalvaardigheid (zelf-gerapporteerde luistervaardigheid, zelf-gerapporteerde spreekvaardigheid, zelf-gerapporteerde leesvaardigheid en zelf-gerapporteerde schrijfvaardighied), gebruik van vaste uitdrukkingen, WTC en SC.

Hoofdstuk 4 presenteert de resultaten van de studie. De resultaten geven aan dat de extra input door middel van het film programma positieve effecten heeft voor de leerders op verschillende manieren. De analyses laten zien dat de experimentele groep significant veel meer dan de controlegroep vooruit ging qua algemene taalvaardigheid en zelfvertrouwen en dat beide groepen vooruitgingen qua WTC. Met betrekking tot spreken, deden beide groepen het even goed, hoewel de experimentele groep helemaal geen spreekoefeningen kreeg. Voor schrijven ging de experimentele groep significant meer vooruit dan de controlegroep als het verschil tussen pre - en post- schrijf scores werd gebruikt. Wat betreft de zelf-gerapporteerde vaardigheden bleek, zoals verwacht, dat de experimentele groep die werd blootgesteld aan meer luisteren hun luistervaardigheid hoger inschatten dan de controlegroep. Beide groepen beoordeelden hun andere taalvaardigheden (spreken, lezen en schrijven) als even goed. Daarnaast, bleken de twee cursusleiders A en B beter te presteren met het experimentele programma en geen van hen leek een voorkeur te hebben voor één van beide condities. Dit suggereert dat de DUB benadering zelf, die het gebruik van authentieke taalinput benadrukt en deze regelmatig laat terugkomen in het curriculum, gunstig voor de leerders kan zijn. Met andere woorden, de DUB aanpak lijkt goed te werken met verschillende docenten, mits zij volgens de DUB principes werken. Toch laat de film of DUB programma geen significant betere resultaten zien voor alle aspecten.Wat betreft het gebruik van vaste uitdrukkingen waren de scores voor beide groepen hetzelfde. Hoewel de Experimentele Groep meer authentieke gesproken input ontving, die vol authentieke taalgebruik zat, en meer bewustzijn van de relevantie van vaste uitdrukkingen liet zien, produceren de leerders in deze groep niet meer vaste uitdrukkingen dan de controle groep.

Hoofdstuk 5 geeft een overzicht van de gehele studie en beschrijft waarom een DUB benadering van tweede taalonderwijs kan leiden tot een aantal positieve resultaten. Verklaringen voor het feit dat de experimentele grope niet significant meer vooruitgingen in authentiek taalgebruik werd verklaard door het dynamisch perspectief dat inhoudt dat niet alle taalsubsystemen zich tegelijk ontwikkelen en dat ook uit eerder onderzoek is gebleken dat de vaste uitdrukkingen zich pas goed ontwikkelen op hogere niveaus. Het hoofdstuk sluit af met een aantal pedagogische implicaties, beperkingen van het onderzoek en het doen van enkele suggesties voor verder onderzoek.

De huidige studie had drie beperkingen. Ten eerste was het een quasi-experimentele studie zonder random toewijzing op subject niveau. De deelnemers in de huidige studie waren niet willekeurig verdeeld over controle en experimentele groepen omdat er gebruik is gemaakt van natuurlijke intacte klassen. Dat betekent dat verschillen op leerder niveau van invloed kunnen zijn geweest op de uitkomsten. Te denken valt aan motivatie of voorkeur voor een bepaalde docent of benadering. Ten tweede werd er geen uitgestelde nameting uitgevoerd. Hierdoor is niet zeker of de DUB aanpak een positief effect kan hebben op de lange termijn, in vergelijking met de controle conditie. Ten derde kan het relatief kleine aantal deelnemers, met name in de controlegroep (n = 69) een beperking zijn.

Vervolgonderzoek gebaseerd op de resultaten van de huidige studie kan verschillende kanten opgaan. Ten eerst zou het huidige onderzoek gerepliceerd moeten worden met andere studenten en docenten om de validiteit van de benaderingen aan te tonen. Verder zou kunnen worden gekeken naar de effectiviteit van de benadering bij leerders op lagere en hogere taalvaardigheidsniveaus. Ten derde zou moeten worden gekeken naar de effecten op langere termijn. Tenslotte is in het kader van dit promotieonderzoek niet gekeken naar de relatie tussen input en output. Het zou zinvol zijn om voor toekomstig onderzoek te kijken naar deze relatie om te zien in hoeverre de input die de leerders krijgen kan bijdragen aan zijn of haar gebruik van de taal in de echte communicatieve situaties.

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